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Professor HUGHES, F.R.G.S., King's College, London ;
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Master of Clifton College ; the Rev. J. R. Maragh, Fellow, Dean,
and Tutor of Queen's College, Oxford ; W. A. Pearson, Esq., Fellow
and Tutor of New College, Oxford ; and also by the fact that out
of all the boys admitted to the time preceding the foundation of
the College to the University, (commencing with October, 1860,) six
have gained open Scholarships, and subsequent honours in the
schools ; two have gained further Scholarships since residence ;
and one, who did not stand for a scholarship, has obtained honours
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Public Examinations, this College has obtained seventeen Univer-
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48 and 49, Bedford-square, London.—THE CLASSES will
BEGIN for the SESSION 1866-67 on THURSDAY, October 11th.
THE SCHOOL will RE-OPEN on THURSDAY, September 27th.
Two Arnold Scholarships, giving free admission for two years to
Five Classes, including Natural Philosophy and Mathematics, will
be open, competition by Examination at the beginning of
Next October. Candidates are requested to send in their Names
before September 1st.

Prospects may be had at the College.

JANE MARTINEAU, Hon. Sec.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE SCHOOL,
London.—The Rev. J. PANTON HAM, Minister of Essex-
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above School. The next Session begins on the 27th of September.
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MEDICAL COLLEGE.

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with an Introductory Address by Mr. SAVORY, at 5 o'clock P.M.
Consulting Physician—Dr. Burrows.
Physician—Dr. Farre, Dr. Jeaffreson, Dr. Black, and Dr. Martin.
Surgeon—Mr. St. John, Mr. St. John, and Mr. Lawrence.
Surgeon—Mr. Wormald, Mr. Page, Mr. Coote, and Mr. Holden.
Assistant-Physicians—Dr. Edwards, Dr. Harris, Dr. Andrew, and
Dr. Southey.

Assistant-Surgeons—Mr. Savory, Mr. Callendar, Mr. T. Smith,
and Mr. Willatt.

Physician-Acoustician—Dr. Greenhalgh.

LECTURES.

Medicine—Dr. Black.
Clinical Medicine—Dr. Farre, Dr. Black, and Dr. Martin.
Surgery—Mr. Page and Mr. Coote.
Clinical Surgery—Dr. Farre, Mr. Page, Mr. Coote, and Mr. Holden.
Descriptive Anatomy—Dr. Holden and Mr. Calender.
Physiology and General Anatomy—Mr. Savory.

Chemistry—Dr. Odling.
Demonstrators of Anatomy—Mr. Smith and Mr. Baker.
Assistant-Demonstrators of Anatomy—Mr. Vernon and Mr.
Tutors—Dr. Duckworth, Mr. Baker, and Mr. Shepard.

SUMMER SESSION, commencing May 1st, 1867.

Materials—Dr. Farre.

Botany—Rev. George Henslow.

Forensic Medicine—Dr. Edwards.

Midwifery—Dr. Greenhalgh.

Comparative Anatomy—Dr. Church.

Medical Chemistry—Dr. Odling.

Dental Surgery—Mr. Coleman.

Microscopic Demonstrations—Mr. Savory.

Demonstrators of Microscopic Anatomy—Dr. Southey and Mr.
Vernon.

Demonstrators of Operative Surgery—Mr. Smith and Mr. Baker.

Surgeons—Mr. Wood.

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Students.

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Students have charge of patients under the supervision of the
Assistant-Surgeons.

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Smith, Mr. Calender, at the Hospital.

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Contents for SEPTEMBER. No. DXLIX.

I. OPHIR, THE LAND OF GOLD.

II. THE SPIRIT'S PROPHECY. By Mrs. Bushby. Part II.

III. ABOUT "PROGRESS BY ANTAGONISM" in FRIENDSHIP and LOVE. By Francis J. Cox.

IV. WANDERINGS THROUGH ITALY. By Dr. Ramage.

V. ST. MICHAEL'S MOUNT, CORNWALL. By Nicholas Michel.

VI. IDALIA. Book V. Chap. XI.

VII. VICTOR HUGO. By Cyrus Redding.

VIII. THE TEMITED and the TEMPTERS.

IX. AUSTRIA: a Sonnet.

X. EUROPEAN and CHINESE DIVINATION by GEOMANCY.

In the October Number will be commenced a NEW NOVEL, entitled,

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I. THE FAIR UNKNOWN. A Yachting Tale of August, 1866.

Chap. I. A Vision of Loveliness seen by a Yachtsman, and the Effect it produced on him.

Chap. II. Describes the Search made by the Yachtsman for the Fair Unknown, and its results.

Chap. III. The Vision of Loveliness having become Reality, a length, to the Yachtsman's intense delight, comes on board his Yacht.

Chap. IV. Convalescence in 1866, and various circumstances connected with it.

Chap. V. A Pic-nic, and what happened to the principal People concerned.

II. THROWN AWAY. By Mrs. Alfred M. Münster. Chaps. XIII. and XIV.

III. ESTELLE.

IV. WATERTON'S HOME.

V. LITTLE TALBOT THE GREAT.

VI. BRIARS and THORNS. By Blanche Marryat. Part II. Chaps. IV. to VI.

VII. HOW SAINT ANDERS WON the "HOAX." By William Jones.

VIII. SKETCHES of SUNNY SCENES and SOCIAL SCIENCE in SWITZERLAND.

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Contents.

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The GRIM GROTESQUE.

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"—2.—Cumberly Lane without the Mud.

" 24.—The Russian Spy.

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LONDON, SATURDAY, AUGUST 25, 1866.

LITERATURE

Memoirs of Charlotte Corday, founded on authentic and unpublished Documents—[Mémoires sur Charlotte Corday, &c., par M. Adolphe Huard]. (Paris, Rondiez; London, Hachette & Co.)

THE London papers of the 23rd of July, 1793, contained a report of the debates in the French Convention on the 9th of the same month, and also, rare sample of "latest intelligence," a paragraph to the effect that, on the 14th of the same July, the notorious Marat had been killed by a blow from a dagger delivered by a young woman who encountered him on his way to or from the bath. Two or three days later the public were informed that the young person's name was Corde, or Cordé, that she acknowledged and justified the act, and that she had died like a heroine. Thus much being said, the English public heard no more of the matter. Scraps of foreign intelligence were flung to them from Mentz, Valenciennes, and more distant places, while home news was confined to records of the gay doings of our then young princes, of the whereabouts of great actors, and of the outpourings of Charlotte Smith and her equals in minstrelsy of the mildest quality.

Princes, players, warriors, poetasters, statesmen, quacks,—of all these but two or three remain on the surface to challenge public notice. Among those whose names still live there is not one that excites our interest and sympathy in an equal degree with Marie Anne Charlotte de Corday d'Armont. She was not a peasant girl in a *Cauchoise* cap, as fanciful artists have depicted her, but a noble daughter of one of the most ancient and noble families in Normandy. She was noble by blood and by intellect. Among her ancestry were a treasurer of France and the youngest sister of Corneille.

Up in grave Normandy her father, a decayed Norman noble, lived in a poor house with a wife, two sons and three daughters. His actual revenue was but 1,500 livres a year—60L! Some addition to this he made, but by what means is not now known. This gentleman was named François de Corday d'Armont. The first name was that of his father; the second was a little territorial addition, *à la façon de Normandie*. With all his poverty he displayed a shield of arms, *sable*, three chevrons, disjoined, *or*; the legend "Corde et ore." He was a grave and gentle being, making (with his wife) great sacrifices for his eldest son, and teaching his other children to aid in the aggrandizement of the heir of the family. "It was his custom to place his money in a drawer open to all his children. He told them the amount, to what use he intended to apply it, and by such means he fully accomplished his ends. He rendered them acquainted with the modesty of his resources, and with the necessity for the strictest economy, that those resources might suffice for the wants of the household." In this household, Marie Anne Charlotte de Corday d'Armont was born in 1768, the second daughter. She was descended from the youngest sister of Corneille. This, however, obtained less consideration, probably, for her, in the convent where she was educated, at least *brought up*, than the fact that her father was a gentleman. Her convent life at l'Abbaye aux Dames was not a strict, secluded one. There was a liberal lady abbess, who allowed her pupils to read Rousseau, Raynal, and similar expressers of free thought. When the most beautiful of the daughters of M. de

Corday d'Armont came from the convent (on the suppression of religious houses in 1790) into the world, and began to see its vices and its miseries, she failed to share in her sire's royalist sentiments, was not sure that it was right to drink the health of a weak king, and she set no more value on the dear distinctive *de* before Corday, than she set on anything which had not some definite value through profitable use.

She appeared in the world with great personal beauty, playfulness of manner, and irresistible grace, for her endowment. She had a convent character for absolute unselfishness, for being "dure à elle-même," for uncomplainingness. She was as well read in the history of the saints as in that of classical heroes, wrote with so few faults of orthography that we wonder her biographer apologizes for them, and could compose a domestic business letter with such lucid brevity as to show that, as a wife and mother at the head of a household, she would have been a sensible matron, of few words and much promptitude of action.

There was a ready homage for her youth and beauty, and other maidenly qualities, when she came home to her father's humble château farm at Argentan; but she did not regard it. Young poets dedicated verses to her, and young idle gentlemen said pretty idle things to her; but these touched her not. France was then all on fire with revolution, and she had neither eye nor heart but for her country. Her father's sentiments in favour of reform and a limited monarchy fell far short of her own aspirations for a pure, free, and happy republic. We are not quite sure that she was not, at that moment, something of a strong-minded and self-willed young lady; but it is only out of strength of mind and independence of others' will that heroes are made, and fulfil their missions. The old Norman noble, still clinging to monarchy while he supported constitutional changes, had only angry controversies with a daughter who had learnt to think that monarchy was worn out in France, and that Louis the Sixteenth was, at all events, unfit to be at the head of it. These too-warmly sustained political encounters, joined with the father's diminishing resources, led to the withdrawal of Charlotte Corday from the thatched paternal château to the house of an aunt in the city of Caen. This separation occurred in 1792. The constitutional royalist did not spare his republican daughter. "I do not deserve the harsh words of my father," she writes to a friend. "It is not out of a spirit of contradiction that I do not share the opinions of my friends and relations. I see differently from what they see, because my conscience dictates to me the contrary of what they think." In the same letter she says of the King, "I have no feeling of hatred against him; quite the contrary, because he is full of good intentions; but, as you yourself have told me, Hell is full of good intentions, and is none the less Hell. His weakness is a misfortune to himself and to us." As the perils of France increased, Charlotte Corday recognized the prudence, but not the patriotism, of men who emigrated, and who, like her brother, went and waited at Coblenz. At the execution of the King she "shuddered" (as she wrote to Mdlle. Rose du Fayot) "with horror and indignation," and almost despaired of the commonwealth, the leading men of which sought by such means to establish their power. Her frankness startled some of her more discreet friends, to the monition of one of whom she answered, "One can die but once! but what fortifies me in our present perils is that no one will lose by losing me. Besides,

I have never valued life but by the good use that might be made of it." The idea of sacrificing herself in accomplishing some act by which her country might be saved seems to have taken possession of her mind at an early period. Her heart was altogether with the Girondins, and she did not affect to conceal her detestation of the Mountain and of Marat. To a young friend who once found her in tears and asked her why she wept, Charlotte Corday replied, "I weep over the misfortunes of my country, of my relations and of my friends. . . . As long as Marat lives there will be no security for the friends of law and humanity."

When the Mountain declared war against the Girondins, and eighteen members of that more moderate republican party took refuge in Caen from the death that menaced them in Paris, the feelings of the young enthusiast became more excited than ever; but she kept them more under control. When one of the refugee Girondins jokingly called her "the fair aristocrat," she answered, "You judge me to-day, Citizen Pétion, without knowing me. The time will come when you will know me better." As no one dreamed of the deed, neither Pétion nor any one else thought her capable of committing it. Even when it was consummated, "People here in Paris"—she wrote from her prison to Barbaroux—"are unable to conceive how a useless woman, whose long life would be good for nothing, can unreluctantly sacrifice herself to save her country."

Charlotte Corday's resolution to make this sacrifice was finally embraced when the volunteers of her district were about to march to Paris in support of the Girondin party. She reflected that in such a matter many valuable lives would be certainly lost, and she thought that the Mountain would be overthrown if Marat were destroyed. That destruction she took upon herself. Serenely, but with intent unalterably fixed, she made her little preparations. She left a letter for her father, asking his pardon for an act of disobedience in departing without the sanction of parental authority. With full sense of the almost certain death that awaited her, she had contemplated the bare possibility of escape, and had resolved, should the opportunity present itself, to take refuge in England. At another moment she thought that she might save her name if, after destroying Marat, she were herself to perish at the hands of those who might hasten to avenge him. Ultimately, however, while concealing her intentions, she took a passport and engaged a seat in the Paris diligence in her own name. To one young acquaintance only she used the words at parting, "Do not forget me, little friend; you will never see me again!" When bidding farewell to Madame Malflâtre, she took that lady's youthful son in her arms, kissed him tenderly, and bade him love well his mother and his country! The youth grew to be an old man, dying in 1851. He was, we are told, "the envy and admiration of his neighbours." Charlotte Corday's last kiss rested on his brow, and people learned to look upon him "as if that brow had been marked by the finger of an angel."

On the 9th of July, 1793, the young Norman maiden left Caen, in the public stage, with various other passengers, all Montagnards, among whom she found herself a stranger sunk in reverie. "I seemed to awake," as she afterwards wrote, just previous to her trial, "only as we drew near Paris. One of my fellow-travellers," she adds, "mistook me for the daughter of one of his old friends, attributed to me a fortune which I never possessed, addressed me by a name which I never heard,

and at last offered me his own fortune and his hand!" Charlotte Corday's mind was not attuned to such low comedy as this, and she dismissed the gallant Montagnard and his suit. "At night," she further wrote, "he sang plaintive songs, provocative of sleep. We parted, at last, in Paris; I, refusing to give him my own address or that of my father (of whom he professed to wish to ask my hand), and he in sullen humour!"

We need not follow Charlotte Corday to her modest "Hôtel de la Providence," in the "Rue des Vieux Augustins," where the room which she occupied for two or three days may still be seen. We may observe, however, as a singular coincidence, that on the day of her arrival in the capital (11th July, 1793) the *Chronique de Paris* contained a reference to the indisposition of Marat. "If he happens to die," says the journalist, "some secret motive would be assigned, for every one knows that the death of great men has always something extraordinary in it." A young girl hanging up her pink slip and other little effects in the closet of a third-rate hotel; occupying herself with rendering a good office in behalf of a poor lady, her friend, in Normandy; calmly buying a kitchen knife in a sheath, at the Palais Royal, for a couple of francs; and then sitting down to compose a long address to the French people, to be read after the deed and her own death, was the malady of which Marat was unconsciously dying. In that address she justifies the act then resolved on, and exclaims, "Oh, my country! thy miseries tear my heart. I can offer to thee nothing but my life, and I render thanks to heaven for the liberty I enjoy of disposing of it.... Let not my relatives and friends be molested; no human being knew of my design. I add the certificate of my baptism to this address, to show what may be effected by the feeblest hand joined with the most complete devotion. If I fail in my undertaking, Frenchmen, I have shown you the way. You know your enemies. Arise, march, and strike!"

Many a foreign explorer of Paris has traversed the distance between the Rue des Vieux Augustins and the Rue des Cordeliers (now the Rue de l'École de Médecine), which Charlotte Corday traversed on the 13th of July for the last time, after her repeated attempts to obtain admission to Marat. Alone, unsupported, with her resolve in her heart, the knife in her bosom, and her address of justification at its side, she almost forced her way into the room of the demagogue, where he lay in his bath, resigned, if not willing, to hear the important political intelligence she professed to bring with her. She seems to have anticipated Lamartine's objection to her being considered a spotless heroine on the ground of her obtaining admission under a false pretence. She herself, in a letter written after her arrest, described the pretence as "perfidie"; but she quoted Raynal, who authorized craft, duplicity, falsehood, anything in fact, whereby to circumvent a tyrant. Moreover, she was anxious to despatch the great scourge of France before the 14th, which was the festival of Liberty. As the two remained face to face, Marat seated in his bath, with writing-desk and materials laid across it, Charlotte Corday standing near, it was not till he had repeated more than once his design to send various persons in Caen under the knife of the guillotine that all her energies were braced, and with one blow she drove the knife through the "clavicule" into one of Marat's lungs. There are various reports as to the cries he uttered and the last words he expressed; but Charlotte Corday seems to have stricken him instantly speechless (save one shriek for help), if not instantly dead. Her own account, calmly rendered, was

that he spoke no word after she had stabbed him; none, at least, that she remarked. The great avenger, as she was called by some, was sufficiently calm to have remarked any incident of speech or action, and was calmly moving from the room when her passage was opposed by various individuals, by whom she was treated with a barbarity which she neither avoided nor complained of. That quiet passiveness and that gentle character never quitted her. Neither when conveyed through crowds eager to slay her nor when before the Courts of preliminary examination or final trial did she for a moment lose the support of that courage which was founded on her conviction of having fulfilled a perilous duty. She assented to most of the depositions of witnesses as being true, and when these documents were read over to her, she pointed out, with singular clearness of memory, where they differed, even in very minor expressions, from the testimony actually rendered.

Although the Mountain asserted the atrocity of the crime, the criminal was not treated with any great measure of rigour before her death. She underwent worse treatment at the hands of the ballad-singers. While those who had seen her were wondering at the great summation effected by so fair a creature, the street-corners were re-echoing a new song hastily made on the subject, to the air of "Cœurs sensibles," from *'Figaro'*, in which was this verse:—

Ce coup qui perce notre âme,
A jamais, d'un vif regret,
Part de la main d'une femme
Abandonnée au forfait.
Satan crée cette infâme,
On y voit en chaque trait
Du tentateur le portrait. (Bis.)

But while the populace was disparaging her beauty, and likening her only to her father the Devil, Charlotte Corday, previous to her trial, was engaged only in justifying her motives and absolving all suspected persons from the charge of complicity. "I never hated but one human being," she writes in one of her letters, "and I have shown the intensity of that hatred; but there are a thousand whom I love far more intensely than I hated him." In another, written the day before her trial, which was on the 17th, she says—"I have no need to affect insensibility in my present condition, for up to this instant I have not felt the slightest fear of death." And she knew how near that death was, for she says: "To-morrow (the 17th), at eight o'clock, I am to be tried; by midday, probably, *I shall have lived*, to use the old Roman phrase." Lamartine has given one of the letters she wrote to her father. In another she trusts he will not be molested on her account, and in a message to her friends she says, "I only ask of them prompt oblivion. To sorrow for me would be to dishonour my memory." And she reiterates her fearless readiness to die, "not that to die is everything; it behoves us also to die becomingly." Then occurred that touch of human nature which betrays the desire not to be shrouded in oblivion. She addressed a note to the Committee of Public Safety, in which she asked permission to have her portrait taken. "I would fain leave that mark of my remembrance to my friends;" and she adds, with a touch of woman's argument that she thought might help to win the consent which without it might be refused, "Moreover, as the effigies of good citizens are cherished, curiosity sometimes seeks out those of great criminals, which serve to perpetuate the horror caused by their crimes." She does not say to which class she belonged; but when M. Hauer stood sketching her portrait during her trial (to which process Charlotte Corday readily lent herself) he was not audaciously risking his head, as some have

thought; he was preparing his picture of 'The Death of Marat' by order. The portrait of Charlotte Corday, which he commenced in Court, he continued (but did not finish) in her cell, till the work was interrupted by the arrival of the executioner and his assistants. The least-agitated person was the one condemned to death. With the artist she spoke unreservedly of the deed she had done as one strictly lawful; and then turned to Samson to undergo that "toilet" of the condemned, which has been illustrated by Mr. E. M. Ward in one of his happiest pictures. M. Hauer's unfinished portrait, to which he added something after his sitter's death, is now at Versailles, with a guarantee of its authenticity.

There was but one moment before death when Charlotte Corday lost her self-possession. It occurred when it was insinuated that a woman so young and inexperienced must have been the tool of others. To be that would have sunk her to the level of an assassin, and she repelled the idea with equal energy and horror. Her bearing on the way to execution has often been described. It was that of a heroine whose calm conviction of having fulfilled her mission gave her adequate support. She neither feared nor scorned the multitude that assailed her with outrages during her passage of two hours. The little white cap she had made in prison covered the top of her short-cut chestnut hair, and her white frock, partially covered by the red mantle or robe, indicating a parricide, were often spoken of, in after times, by those who witnessed with wonder the supernatural tranquillity of the wearer. Robespierre, Danton, and Camille Desmoulins saw her pass, from the same window; the persons, if not the locality from which they witnessed the passage of Charlotte Corday to death, have been preserved in Mr. Ward's picture on the subject. They looked on her without triumph; they had heard, perhaps, that she called the day of the deed for which she was about to suffer "the first of the new era of peace," and they may have had forebodings of that course of things which did not leave the longest survivor of them alive in the July of the following year. Samson himself, the then hereditary chief executioner of Paris, was subdued by the gentleness of his "patient." When she expressed a wish to wear her gloves, he consented, but added, "It is not necessary; I will tie your wrists without hurting you in the slightest degree." He taught her how to sustain herself in the cart so as to avoid the shocks of that springless vehicle; and when, on reaching the Place de la Révolution, she turned her head to look at the guillotine, he hurriedly placed himself between her and the hideous object; but she said, in her sweet, low, steady voice, "Let me look on it; my curiosity is natural; I never saw one before."

All accounts agree in the unaffected courage with which she submitted to the terrible death which she accepted beforehand as the result of her act in behalf of her country. "She is the Judith of France!" exclaimed her uncle, the Abbé de Corday, when he heard of her deed. "She merits a statue," said Adam Lux, the Conventionalist, "on which should be inscribed, 'To one greater than Brutus,'"—a sentiment for uttering which the member for Mayence perished on the same scaffold. "She has ruined us," said Vergniaud, "but she has taught us how to die!" To these comments may be added that of Madame de Bentinck, "that fine old Royalist," as Lord Henry Spencer calls her in the Auckland Correspondence: "Marat," said the old lady, "deserved to die by the hoofs of an ass, not by the hands of a pretty woman!"

It may be remembered that on the story

of one of the executioner's assistants having, as he held up the head of Charlotte Corday, smote it with his hand on the cheek, and of that cheek having blushed with indignation, a theory has been advanced that sensibility does not immediately die with the body, when violent death kills the latter by decapitation. The German anatomist, Sömmerring, appealed to the above incident as a "well-known fact," witnessed by many people, in proof of the theory of sensation after death by beheading. Dr. Sue indorsed the theory, the more readily, as he says, the cheek of an ordinary corpse will not redden by being struck, and that, when the head of Charlotte Corday was held up, it was only smitten on one cheek, but that both cheeks blushed with shame, a perfect proof, says Dr. Sue, that "after decapitation there is undoubtedly in the brain some remains of judgment, and in the nerves remains of sensibility." An equally illustrious man, Cabanis, declared that he did not believe a word of the theory of his celebrated colleagues. Cabanis, in a learned dissertation on the subject, further stated, that a medical man of ability, a friend of his, followed Charlotte Corday from the prison to the scaffold; that he never lost sight of her for a moment; that she turned slightly pale on ascending, but that her face soon shone more beautiful than ever; and that as for the reputed blush mantling her dead cheeks when the hangman struck them, he saw nothing whatever of the sort. Dr. Leveillé also discredits the story; but he is not prepared, he says, to assert that the recently dead cheek, still warm, might not have reddened when struck. A blow, he thinks, might arrest the downward flow of remains of blood in the small vessels, and thus produce a momentary redness; but as for judgment or sensibility being there, or both cheeks blushing when only one is struck, he wisely rejects all such conclusions as sheer nonsense. Between these statements it is easy to choose, and they form a curious portion of M. Huard's book.

The author does not notice the assertion of M. Thiers, that at the time of Marat's death his colleagues were utterly weary of him. They certainly evinced great regard for the good fame of his destroyer when they allowed the medical report to be published which silenced those who had assailed the reputation of Charlotte Corday. That reputation is not at all helped by M. Huard's hyper-laudation. "La vierge de Normandie," and "L'ange de l'assassinat," are tunes which need not be struck at every turn of the lyre. As for the author's assertion that the "heroine of Calvados" was an *orthodox* Catholic, it is refuted by her own remarks at her trial. When asked if she used to *confess* to a priest of the old régime or to a "constitutional," her reply was, "To neither the one nor the other." She had her own ideas of a pure church, as she had of a pure republic.

The universal human heart has absolved the individual human hand; but humanity does not dream of raising a statue in honour of her who was "greater than Brutus." Malignant imbecility might mistake the memorial of an exceptional justifiable murder for a reminder that murder itself was justifiable. In the sense of public testimony, the Parisians went far enough when Fréron's "gilded youth" tore down and smashed the busts of Marat in the theatres and other public places. Since then, the painter, the poet, and the historian have illustrated the sad story of Charlotte Corday. The English actor, Eyre, produced his tragedy, "The Heroine of Normandy," on the Dublin stage, in 1793; and Regnier Destourbes his drama, "Charlotte Corday," at the Théâtre Français, in

1834. Our Government prohibited the first, and the French public were not much attracted by the second. Of the fate of Charlotte Corday's family, M. Huard tells us nothing. We can only add, of our own knowledge, that a cousin, some years younger than Charlotte, died, in 1864, at the age of 89, in her Château de Rénovard, near Vimoutiers (Orne). This "Douairière De Corday" remembered Charlotte as one who was grave or gay, reserved or loquacious, serious or laughing, at the time warranted; but ever with a love for children and their companionship; and with (as she was wont to say) "the manners of a well-bred young lady, according to the usages and traditions of the De Corday family."

South Australia: its Progress and Prosperity.
By Anthony Forster. With a Map. (Low & Co.)

Mr. Forster has produced a comprehensive and elaborate statement of the history, resources, and social condition of the colony of South Australia. "The population of Adelaide," he observes, "is at present about 22,000, and of the country districts 133,000. It is a pleasing indication of progress in a right direction that the rural population has largely increased, while the population of the city, from 1855 to 1861, had absolutely decreased from 21,44 per cent. of the whole people to 14,43 per cent." In the chapter entitled "Exploration" the author, without evincing any wish to disparage the achievements of the late Governor of Jamaica, gives a brief account of Mr. Eyre's disastrous and profitless journey from Fowler's Bay to Thistle Cove, which differs materially from those romantic versions of the affair which have taken possession of the popular imagination. In 1840 the colonists of South Australia resolved to send out an exploring expedition, for the purpose of opening up a communication between the southern and western colonies; and in due course they committed the control of the expedition to Mr. John Edward Eyre, a gentleman who "had been engaged for several years in conducting expeditions, in charge of stock, from one colony to another; and had acquired, from his experience in the bush and general intelligence, prudence and enterprise, an eminent fitness for the service now contemplated." Towards the expenses of the undertaking the local Government subscribed 100*l.*, and the colonists, 582*l.*, whilst Mr. Eyre, from his own pocket, contributed 680*l.*, and three horses valued at 200*l.* more. By Mr. Eyre's representations the promoters of the exploration were induced to relinquish their wish for an expedition towards the west, and to accede to his proposal for a northward route. On June 18, 1840, the explorers started from Adelaide, and, after some eight months of toil and disappointment, there was no doubt as to the unsoundness of the considerations and counsel which substituted a northward for a westward exploration. Feeling that he had misled his constituents, Mr. Eyre resolved to make an attempt to discover a serviceable route in the direction originally advocated by a majority of the contributors to the Exploration Fund. With this purpose he started from Fowler's Bay, and turned his face westward for King George's Sound on February 25, 1841, his party consisting of himself, an overseer named Baxter, and three natives. They were provided with nine horses, a Timor pony, and six sheep. By the 28th of the following month they had suffered great distress from want of water. "The natives had become dispirited and disaffected, and the overseer had begun to question the propriety of their

attempting to go on. But the case was desperate. In their then exhausted condition there was as little chance of getting back to Fowler's Bay as there was of getting forward to the Sound. Mr. Eyre determined to push for the latter, believing it to be, under the circumstances, the wisest course to pursue." The romantic narratives of this journey represent that at this juncture Mr. Eyre might, with comparative ease and security, have retraced his steps to Fowler's Bay, and that had he been an ordinary mortal he would have done so; but that, since his object was to clear his honour rather than to save his life, he persisted in an onward course, although he felt that each step was in all probability leading him nearer to his grave. Mr. Eyre, be it observed, never gave this melo-dramatic colouring to his own conduct. On the morning of the 28th he was convinced that he had advanced so far that to return was impossible. His only chance of escape from his terrible position lay in an onward march; and with certain death in his rear he fixed his eyes on the faint possibility of escape through perseverance in an onward course. In the night following that day's anxious progress, the overseer, Baxter, was murdered by two of the blacks, and Mr. Eyre found himself left alone with the third native, man belonging to King George's Sound. The two murderers took a backward route in the direction of Fowler's Bay; the third black, whose fidelity was doubtless in some measure due to his preference for the onward route towards his home, remained true to the European explorer. Here again the romantic versions pause to extol Mr. Eyre's heroism in still resolutely marching onwards with the one black boy, when a man of less determination would have faced about and made all possible haste to Fowler's Bay; but it is needless to observe that the course which would have been suicidal before Baxter's murder had not been rendered less dangerous by that event. Every consideration which pointed out the onward journey as the preferable course for five men, had gathered force from the hideous occurrence which reduced the party from five to two. Mr. Eyre persevered in the one course that offered a chance of escape, and on June 2 he reached Thistle Cove, where he was received on board the French whaler, *Mississippi*, commanded by Capt. Rossiter, an Englishman. Recruited by a fortnight's rest on board the *Mississippi*, Mr. Eyre and the black made the remainder of their journey to Albany, King George's Sound, with comparative ease; and having stayed a few days at the Sound the English explorer returned by ship to Adelaide. "Of his courage and indomitable perseverance as an explorer," says Mr. Forster, "no doubt whatever can be entertained, although his enterprise accomplished little beyond proving that the region bounding the sea-coast along the great Australian bight is of a very arid and desolate description. In some parts of his route, if he had succeeded in penetrating further inland, he would have discovered country of which he might have had a more cheering tale to tell. The distance between Spencer's Gulf and Streaky Bay is now covered with sheep-stations. And recently, at Fowler's Bay, the point at which Mr. Eyre was entreated to return by his Adelaide friends, many thousands of square miles have been taken up from the Government for depasturing purposes; water suitable for stock has already been found there by digging, and should it thus be found extensively, it is said that a finer pastoral district does not exist in the colony. And without for a moment wishing to disparage efforts which can only be regarded with admiration, I may

venture to say that an overland journey between Adelaide and King George's Sound could now be accomplished without any of those disasters to which Mr. Eyre, as a pioneer, was unhappily exposed." That Mr. Eyre, five and twenty years since, possessed the kind of courage and the kind of perseverance requisite in colonial explorers is unquestionable.

A Plea for a New Translation of the Scriptures, with a Translation of St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans. By the Rev. A. Dewes, M.A. (Longmans & Co.)

The number of those who plead the necessity of a new translation of the Bible rapidly increases; and as long as there are careful readers of the Hebrew Bible and Greek Testament, the advocates of such a work will become more emphatic in their demands. If the dignitaries of the Church of England do not entertain the proposal, those called the inferior clergy and intelligent laymen will be stirred up to bring the matter to a practical issue by organizing an association of scholars and all others who are in earnest about it. There is little chance of the legislature initiating the project, so as to procure an "authorized version." Let a better one be produced by private enterprise, and it will commend itself gradually and surely to general acceptance. It may not be read in churches or chapels, but it will be perused in the family, consulted by scholars, and valued for its fidelity as well as for the light thrown on many obscure passages.

Mr. Dewes has given a plea for a new translation in the volume before us, followed by a new version of the Epistle to the Romans. The plea is wholly confined to the New Testament, though the Old Testament is worse translated. We presume that the author does not understand Hebrew.

With many of his remarks about a new version we cordially agree. The case is earnestly put. The writer shows that the necessity exists, and should be speedily met. His remarks are generally judicious, sensible and appropriate. He sees clearly the principles lying at the foundation of a correct version, and enunciates them well. But his translation of the Epistle to the Romans hardly realizes the true standard. It gives the correct sense of the original oftener and better than the authorized English, but the language is inferior. Mr. Dewes innovates too much, departing from the venerable translation of King James unnecessarily. This is a great error. But he is more paraphrastic than literal, so as to bring out the meaning better, though his paraphrase is often insipid, compared with the noble simplicity of the received version. For example:—

"For I am not ashamed of the glad tidings, seeing that every one who has faith, a Jew especially, a Gentile also, finds in them a Divine Power, which brings him to salvation. For in them there is being unveiled a divine righteousness, which springs from faith, and tends to increase faith; as it is written:—*But he whose righteousness springs from faith shall live.*—Romans i. 18, 17."

This version is inaccurate in various respects. "The righteousness which springs from faith, and tends to increase faith," is apart from the true sense; and so is the quotation, which is properly rendered in King James's version, but wrongly here. "Let every one set himself in his place under the authorities that are over him," (Romans xiii. 1.) is inferior to the common version.

On the whole, Mr. Dewes has not been very successful in the capacity of translator. He hardly possesses the requisite scholarship or knowledge for it. Thus he alters the English

version of St. Matthew xx. 23, and of Acts xvii. 22, wrongly. A better knowledge of Greek would have led him to see that in both cases our translators have given the true sense. His language also respecting the venerable version of 1611 is exaggerated and inaccurate:—"The authorized version of Scripture is always inaccurate; it is very often obscure; it abounds in mistakes, many of them of an important nature; it introduces ideas of which there is no trace in the original, and such ideas as have taken a strong hold of the nation." He combats successfully the injudicious laudation of our noble version by Bishop Ellicott, points out not a few incorrectnesses of Dean Alford, and presents some good criticisms of passages, as in pages 9, 10, in Romans v. 15—19; but more caution should have been employed in censuring and rectifying the same version. We are glad to welcome any contribution towards a revision of the authorized translation, and give all credit to our author for his praiseworthy attempt. Yet it must be said that he has worked out his ideas very imperfectly, and that his knowledge, both of what has been done already, and what still waits to be accomplished, is very limited. "His own translation," he tells us, "is not a specimen of what a translation of St. Paul's Epistles ought to be." Of what use is it then? His answer to our question is, to show that it is possible for a translation to be readable, yet trustworthy—intelligible, yet faithful. This is feebly shown.

NEW NOVELS.

Aunt Margaret's Troubles. By "a New Writer." (Chapman & Hall.)

WHILE perusing the opening pages of this novelette we were moved to suspect that it would be insufferably level and monotonous. We persevered, however, and found that the author, besides having a pure and correct style, has some qualities which may enable her to write a much more attractive story than that which is now under consideration. She is unfortunate in having chosen rather a hackneyed theme, that of an amiable but commonplace girl supplanted at every step in life by a less conscientious but more striking and resolute sister. This common idea—(common we mean in fiction; is it really common in actual life? let our fair readers answer the question)—might have been invested with a species of artificial novelty by the accessories of incident and scenery. As it is, there is nothing done to give it a fresh aspect, and we are obliged to seek our author's merits in the details rather than in the general effect of her work. Two great merits, however, certainly exist, and cannot be ignored by those who read the book *through*, though people who only skim it might fail to discover them. The first is, that the characters are well drawn, and contrasted with satisfactory distinctness, so that the thread of the story might be taken up, and the same personages might be carried through a longer career and more varied adventures, without any risk of our mistaking or confusing them. The other is, that the author never anticipates her catastrophes, but works up to a crisis with a cautious and self-denying reticence which leaves the thunder-clap to burst with full and overwhelming force. We may add, that she writes with that genuine feeling which is necessary to enlist the sympathies of the reader; and that she has the art of making revelations by a delicate touch, so as to avoid interrupting her narrative by mechanical explanations. For a "new writer" these are by no means small qualifications; and if the author can put more life into her next book, we have little doubt that

she will be rewarded by a very satisfactory success.

Thrice His: a Tale. 2 vols. (Bentley.)

It is not till after two volumes-full of weary puzzlement that we have succeeded in grasping any definite idea either of the purpose of this book or of the meaning of its title. On this latter point, indeed, so great is the mystification, that till the last chapter we have remained perfectly unconscious who it is that is thrice whose, and how and why he or she is so even then. A "great, clever, strong-minded, sceptical woman," aged twenty-one, and married into the bargain,—afflicted with the painful monomania of allowing her "slender fingers" to stray lightly over one gentleman's "magnificent brown beard, thrilling him with an almost painful sensation,"—stretching up her arms to a second, and allowing him to hold her "for an instant to his breast," and press his lips on "her soft silk hair,"—and hiding her blushing face (but this before marriage, and on the eve of accepting another with whom she is desperately in love) on the breast of a third, "in a wild transport of thrilling caresses":—such a character is sufficient excuse for inability to decide exactly who the blessed being was in whom this triple property was vested. But all this signifies comparatively little. The author has a perfect right to call his "tale" what he likes; and it may even be that in the happy euphemism of 'Thrice His,' he has avoided the alternative of a far less pleasant title for his plot. His object in compiling it at all is much more puzzling. *Prima facie*, we suppose, novels may be regarded as written to amuse the reader, and by so doing to pay the writer; but the author of 'Thrice His,' slight as his knowledge is of human nature, can hardly be assumed, without insulting either him or the novel-reading world, to have had such ends as these in view. A tale whose two component parts are grotesque and vulgar caricatures of London society, and such a picture of garrison life in India as might well make a woman blush to have experienced it, can only be classed among tales which are not only unamusing, but, except for their ludicrous unreality, would be cruelly mischievous. Happily for both London society and garrison life in India, the author of 'Thrice His' knows nothing of the one, and has seen only the exceptionally worst side of the other. The ladies and gentlemen who frequent Hyde Park will fail to recognize themselves in any of the elaborate portraits over which he has wasted pen and ink, no less than his Cheltenham neighbours will with righteous indignation repudiate the theory (which, if he means anything, he means to suggest) that officers' wives who have been in India and escaped ruin have reason for supernatural thankfulness!

We have no wish to say more about this silly production; for luckily it is too silly to be anything worse. The first chapter kills off the only pleasing character in the book; and, judging from analogy, all his charms are owing to the fact that the author has not tried to portray them. The last chapter provides a welcome quietus for a heroine who is too pitiable to blame, and too blamable to pity. The two or three hundred intervening pages are filled with impotent endeavours to depict real life, only worthy of being associated with such remarks, made in all seriousness, as this, that—"Conscience makes cowards of us all,"—a by no means hackneyed quotation from some rather clever writer."

Shot! or, the Ghost's Seat at Deymont. By Frederick Sheridan. 2 vols. (Newby.) This novel resembles nothing so much as one

of those patchwork quilts which used to be the glory of good housewives, and a standing piece of needlework for the women in the family. There is a centre-piece—a murder. Two men love the same woman, and one of them is found shot dead in a lonely place called "The Ghost's Seat." Round this centre there is a border of episodes concerning different people, without much connexion with each other, except the author, who narrates the story with much sentimental emphasis and circumlocution. 'Shot' will hardly repay the time spent on its perusal, but it has no worse fault than that of being utter nonsense.

History of a Poor Musician—[*Histoire d'un Pauvre Musicien* (1770—1793), par X. Marquier]. (Hachette & Co.)

This is one of the innocent French novels which are welcome as a change from the tales of guilt and sensual excitement with which the press of Paris has too long teemed (not without their baleful effect on our own novelists). But, as we have more than once had occasion to remark, when our neighbours aim at "peace and decency," they have a tiresome tendency to become mawkish. Betwixt the devilled bone, spiced with extra doses of cayenne, to stimulate the faded palate of the drunkard, and the chicken-broth or apple-tea which the feeblest convalescent rejects as too sickly by half, there is a wide range of wholesome and toothsome food. The tale before us is too near the insipid extremity of the scale. Yet it is not without some favour and prettiness; telling, as it does, how an orphan boy, belonging to Freiburg in the Breisgau, became, after much unkindness and suffering, a small musician, married a good and pure and pretty girl, and lived for a while happily. The main interest of their lives was a remembrance. On her entrance into France, the ill-starred Marie Antoinette noticed Franz Wagner; this was never to be forgotten, and the two, years afterwards, made a long pilgrimage to the Trianon to present to the Queen their simple offerings of grateful recollection, and to have their loyalty kindled anew by her gracious reception. Later, when the sky darkened and the storm burst on France, these devoted and humble friends of the Queen had a sad share in the trials of the tempest. The tale ends, as it began, in a melancholy strain. If not vigorous, it is one which can be given to and read by the young in perfect security, and which may be further recommended as being written in reasonably elegant French.

The Life of the Marchesa Giulia Falletti, di Barolo: Reformer of the Turin Prisons. By Silvio Pellico. From the Original by Lady Georgiana Fullerton. (Bentley.)

This zealous woman—by birth descended from Colbert, the famous French Minister, and married to a Piedmontese nobleman—deserves a place in the Golden Book of Female Beneficence. The pages of the volume before us contain many a trace of zeal without judgment, of superstition as distinct from living, reverential faith; but these must be compared with those of more amusing and showy tomes, in which the loves and the hates, the sentimentalities and the witticisms of the De Tencins, Du Deffands, and a bevy of brilliant French-women are chronicled—if we would fairly estimate the comparative values of their subjects. Like her amiable yet feeble memorialist, Silvio Pellico, La Marchesa Falletti was under an influence not to be contemplated without mistrust—that of the Jesuit party in the Romish Church; and the style of the author of 'Le Mie Prigioni' when he treats of her has a honeyed

and adulterous tone,—no doubt explicable by his gratitude to one who was a protectress and friend to him on his returning home after the dreary years of his Spielberg captivity,—no doubt in some degree national, but also sectarian. The deeds, however, of the Marchesa speak for themselves. If vainglory was, in her, veiled by implicit submission to those who held the keys to her heart and conscience,—if, like our own Elizabeth Fry, she may have sought to be a power and a personage among the great ones of the earth,—she devoted time and energy (the last including pecuniary bounty) to one of those tasks through which nothing but a high, sustaining sense of duty can carry a refined woman, rich (as we are assured) in intelligence, in taste, in everything that makes life easy and bright. The poor creatures whose condition, physical, moral and spiritual, she set herself to improve were probably no more manageable than those sketched by our own "Prison Matron" in her painful book; but she seems never to have wearied in trying to do them good; and, by her general patience, firmness, beneficence, and sweetness, to have gained a real ascendancy over them. Sometimes, indeed, she had recourse to expedients (by herself afterwards humbly denounced as mistakes) which were more effective than sound in point of principle, as the following entry from her journal will prove:—

"There was in the prison a woman who was subject to frightful paroxysms of rage. I have improved her a little, and acted one day in a manner which, by God's blessing, succeeded; however, when I afterwards reflected upon it, I came to the conclusion that I had been imprudent. It happened that a poor creature, mother of a large family, told me one day that she was a laundress, but that during a long illness she had been forced to part with all the implements of her business. I bought her some new ones, and, as it happened just then that the prisoners were in need of a washerwoman, I mentioned to them this poor woman, and proposed that they should give her their things to wash. I said that as she had not been able to attend to her business for some time, the work would not, perhaps, be very well done the first time, adding that it would be a great charity to put up with this for once, and fair that those who had greatly to depend on the charity of others should be willing to exercise it with regard to those who needed it also. They all without exception agreed to the proposal, and gave their washing to the poor woman. It happened as I had foreseen. The things, when returned, were not well got up. They grumbled a little, but when I begged them to give one more trial to the poor laundress, all consented except the passionate woman I mentioned. She swore she would never employ her again, and broke out into a torrent of curses and imprecations. I took no notice of her then but the next day, hoping to find her pacified, I asked if she would not make a little sacrifice for that poor family. 'No,' she rudely answered.—'Very well,' I replied, 'nobody wishes to force you to do an act of charity. You are free to do as you like.' Then, turning to the others, I said, 'As I recommended to you this poor laundress I will pay your washing this week, and as you kindly consented to give her another trial, that of next week also. With you,' I said, turning to the passionate woman, 'I have nothing to do. You refuse to help a poor family, I am not obliged to assist you.' Upon this she began to swear and to accuse me of injustice. I went into the adjoining room and commenced the catechetical instruction. It was in winter. My angry friend had a *cassetta*, which she was in the habit of lending me, and I used to require the obligation by providing her with hot cinders for the rest of the day. In spite of her anger, she bethought herself of sending me the *cassetta*. I declined to accept it, saying that I had rather not receive a service from one who only cared for her own interest. Then she became furious, and screamed like a mad woman. I went to her, and suffered no one to accompany me. Her

rage only increased; we were alone together in a little room, and she told me to go away or that she would strike me. She was tall and strong, and the threat was a serious one. There was a tub full of water and a jug near me. I filled it, and said very quietly, 'My child, I have heard that cold water is an excellent remedy for the sort of attack you labour under.' She exclaimed that if I threw the water upon her I should repent of it. I did so at once. It took her so much by surprise that she did not step back, but still went on howling. I told her to be quiet, and, as she did not comply, I again threw a jug full of water in her face. This time she was completely subdued, and left off screaming. I took her by the hand, and said, 'Come now, let me help you to undress and get into bed.' She let me lead her away like a little child. I sent her a basin of hot broth, and made her drink it. She became quite gentle, begged my pardon for her violence, and entreated me to let her give her washing to the poor laundress. I granted the request, but did not offer to pay for it as I had done for the others. I made use, however, of her *cassetta* when she sent it to me, and from that time forward there was an end of those frantic fits of anger."

If freaks like the above were frequent, or, supposing them few, if they transpired to an outer world year by year increasingly adverse to the body of religionists to which the Marchesa Falletti belonged, the fact may explain the attacks made against her,—proceedings here, of course, stigmatized by her friends as the cruel calumnies of latitudinarian sceptics,—which ended in her being prohibited by Government from taking further part in the works of mercy she had originated and helped forward. But she appears to have shown neither rancour nor resentment. When one avenue of good works was closed to her, she made another for herself. During political convulsions, which must have been to one of her opinions abominable, she was resigned, courageous, and helpful. During the visitation of the cholera (then more dreaded, and even less understood, than it is at the time present) she was an active and fearless nurse of the sick. To the last, her interest in what she held to be the duties of life never failed her. She died—an aged woman, after long years of widowhood—peacefully: she was followed to her grave by many regrets.

The translation of this book and the collection of the matter supplementary to Silvio Pellico's fragment have been accomplished with correctness, grace, and good taste by Lady Georgiana Fullerton.

The Company and the Crown. By the Hon. T. J. Hovell-Thurlow. (Blackwood & Sons.)

It appears from the Preface of this book that Lord Dalhousie, Lord Canning, and Lord Elgin were college friends, and that the author was private secretary to Lord Elgin. We have thus a clue to the purpose and name of the work, both which would be otherwise incomprehensible. The unfortunate Company is dragged in to be sacrificed for the glorification of the Crown, alias the three viceregal friends, of whom the author was the *fides Achates*. The Company, according to this authority, was a very grovelling animal, whose only ambition was "that her stocks should be quoted so superior to par as to enable bondholders to realize colossal fortunes." India under the Company "was an orchard of pagoda-trees for England's younger sons to shake." The peculiar disease of the vicious old Company was that well known to be common among certain other savages, viz., "earth-hunger." All the unrighteous annexations for the last century, including, we suppose, those perpetrated by Lord Dalhousie, were and are to be charged on the East India Company; and the Imperial Government, far from

abetting such evil deeds, would have prevented them had they happened within its beat. A private secretary must, of course, be better informed than other men; otherwise we should think the reverse of all this to be the truth. Our idea was that Governors-General made war and annexed territories, while the East India Company deprecated such proceedings. Not to go back to the old times,—which, however, afford equal support to the opinion just enunciated,—we would ask, whether it was not Lord Auckland and Sir J. Hobhouse who spent fourteen millions in trying to annex Afghanistan, and the Company that protested? Lord Ellenborough and Sir Charles Napier annexed Sind; while the Directors were recalcitrant. The famous proclamation of November, 1858, which Mr. Thurlow rightly calls the *Magna Charta* of India, is due to the Conservative party; but it was scarcely issued when it was falsified and violated by Lord Canning and Sir C. Wood in the annexation of Mysore. It is curious to see how this reprobation of the Company's "earth-hunger" speaks of this last flagrant injustice:—

"In 1832 the British Government again stepped in to quell the civil strife engendered by the utter incapacity for ruling of which the Raja of its choice had afforded more than ample proof. Within a few years of his accession, this young prince had squandered upwards of two millions sterling of accumulations, while the revenue and public debt had both increased until all classes bordered on despair. The country then assumed by treaty has since been held and governed for that country's good, the Raja being treated with great financial liberality and the political consideration to which his rank entitled him. The executive, however, was taken from him, and intrusted to a mixed commission of soldiers and civilians; and the constant intrigues of more than twenty years to recover independence have hitherto been met by us with silence or refusal. Under English sway that promised land of India has attained a measure of prosperity unrivalled in the East. Her woody slopes, of many thousand feet in altitude, and many thousand miles in area, now produce coffee and cinchona; and while the tiger and the leopard of the jungles are rapidly receding before the constantly-advancing strides of European planters, the lofty plateaux have become the sites of peaceful cities, of which the climate is described as follows:—'At Bangalore, about three thousand feet above the sea, the thermometer has been found not to rise above 82° in the shade; and the annual average at noon is 76°. The nights are never hot; and while the evenings and mornings are at all times cool, there is an elasticity in the air at once invigorating and delightful.' Now it happened that the Hindoo Raja of this fruitful country, when bargaining for payment of his debts and some ready money, executed a testamentary instrument in favour of the Queen of England, failing lineal descendants of his own; but the childless ruler, now verging on extreme old age, has since that time so far modified his views as to request the sanction of the paramount power to an adoptive heir. The much-vexed question of adoption thus threatened to destroy the budding prosperity of Mysore; but, considering the extent to which European capital is invested there, and the daily increasing national value of the resources of the country, the Government of India, both in England and in India, steadily and very properly refused to release the Raja from his plighted word; and there is now no reasonable doubt that, whenever His Highness shall shake off this mortal coil, his territories will tranquilly become incorporated with our own."

If Mr. Thurlow had studied the subject at all, he would have found out that the two millions accumulated by Purneah were the great cause of the revenue collapsing when the young Raja was put on the throne. That large sum was raised by grinding exaction, and the impoverished ryots were thus rendered unable to pay what would otherwise have been but a

reasonable land-tax. The assertion that the country was "assumed by treaty" is incorrect. We were only entitled to assume the administration if the sum covenanted to be paid to the British Government should be withheld, and we even then could not assume more than such part as would enable the debt to be discharged. We should like to see some evidence that the Raja "executed a testamentary instrument in favour of the Queen of England," and till that evidence is adduced, we shall take leave to utterly disbelieve the statement.

There are many other things said by Mr. Thurlow about the princes of India which will not stand the test of inquiry; but we shall content ourselves with citing only one more short passage:—

"However this may be, the accumulated experience of past ages shows that ancient public works in India, eloquent as they are as ever-living monuments of bygone dynasties and thrones, as surely paved the way to broadcast misery and want as our remunerative undertakings of to-day prove themselves unerring heralds of enhanced prosperity."

We are sorry that we cannot apply this "flattering unction" to our souls, knowing, as we do, that the gigantic works of irrigation in the Madras Presidency, the tanks and bands constructed long before the date of English rule in India, prove it to be false. A little before, Mr. Thurlow talks of rulers who, like Shahjahan, "exalted the use of taxation in the construction of buildings dedicated to their titular deities," whence we must infer that the author supposes the son of Selim was an idolater, instead of what we should have supposed all knew him to have been, an orthodox Muslim!

There are, then, many inaccurate statements in this book; but there is also an inaccuracy of style which is by no means agreeable. In the very first page, for instance, the soil of Hindostan is said to be "encircled by the British Crown," a strange expression truly. Just below we have "results . . . obscuring . . . general readers," and are told that "the opening for sensation writing," and we know not what besides, "have too frequently been used as frames for highly-coloured pictures," all which obliges us to look up Lindley Murray, and blush "of our ignorance," as in the next sentence we are told men do "on less important subjects." A few pages on we read that "the Viceroy of the hour" is "the axis on which revolve all the countless particles that meet together each day on the Maidan of Fort William." This does not mean, as some simple folk might imagine, that Sir John Lawrence, by exerting a centripetal force, attracts to himself all the dust round Calcutta, but is spoken of certain sorry particles of society, like the "royal brethren from Oude who pollute with their presence the fair retreat of Garden Reach," and who do but metaphorically revolve round the Viceroy, causing him, nevertheless, we opine, as much discomfort as the other more matter-of-fact particles which daily settle on his august visage when he goes forth into the Maidan, or Esplanade.

We cannot conclude this notice without one more extract, which illustrates very well the peculiarities of the author's style. He thus draws the portrait of Sindhya:—

"Slightly exceeding European middle-height, and fleshy enough to cause anxiety to himself, but not to his medical advisers, his square head is set upon a shapely neck resembling, in solidity, some Grecian column destined to support a mighty weight; his chest is adequately broad and deep, and somewhat overlapped by muscular advancing shoulders; his hands and feet are rather larger than the more effeminate extremities of the races of Bengal; while his features, originally small,

have, thanks to betel nut, long lost all delicacy of expression. The head, set upward, appears embarrassed by a downward cast of countenance, while the eyes, uncertain in their glance, are generally unable to regard with fixity the same object. When approached by foreigners of high rank, Scindia's haughty mien, perhaps, inspires a feeling of superiority both to himself and his attendants; yet, if contrasted with the more courteous bearing of some Eastern princes of equal rank and influence, it might be unfavourably read had we not some sterling proofs of loyal disposition to set against the prejudice of personal comparison."

Chewing betel-nut, or, as Mr. Thurlow elsewhere writes it, "betal" nut, imparts a red tint to the saliva, but we certainly were not aware that it deprived the eyes, or any other feature, of "all delicacy of expression." For the rest, we remain pondering over the strange figure of the Maratha Prince, with his square head set on a Corinthian or Attic pillar of a neck, and his body, fat enough to cause inward qualms, but not so obese as to deprive his medical advisers of their serenity; and we cannot but think that the picture of such a personage would be a valuable addition to the *Historical Portrait Gallery*!

The Regency of Anne of Austria, Queen Regent of France, Mother of Louis the Fourteenth. From numerous unpublished sources, including MSS. in the Bibliothèque Impériale and the Archives du Royaume de France, &c. By Martha Walker Freer. 2 vols. (Tinsley Brothers.)

In this work Miss Freer pursues her studies of French history with much the same success and very much the same characteristics as marked her earlier volumes. The result is most creditable to her industry, and, at times, to her powers of narration. But the general character of the work is somewhat heavy. There is nothing to raise it above a level of silver mediocrity, nothing that explains very clearly why such a book was written. Considering that the years which were spanned by the regency of Anne of Austria contained such incidents as the rise of Mazarin to supreme power over the Queen and his exile, the victories of Condé and his imprisonment, the Fronde, the day of the barricades, the parliamentary troubles to which the example of England gave serious significance,—considering that such mighty men were at strife, while the future King was looking on and learning his own lessons, we might have expected a more animated narrative, and more attempts at historical portraiture.

Miss Freer's worst fault is, that parts of her book read as if they were in an imperfect state of translation. She gives us phrases so palpably un-English, even when she does not profess to quote, that either her reading has mastered her writing, or she incorporates her authorities in the body of her own reflections. It is easy to trace the original of such phrases as "the most frantic of expostulations," "dissidents," "opined to," "susceptible only under two base passions," "opined as he had been prompted." Such a sentence as "Altogether Mazarin departed little content with his visit" is a schoolboy translation of a French sentence, while we cannot make any sense of the words "a mob of demireps," and of "inspiring their jealous distrust of each other's designs." These little eccentricities break the smooth monotony of a style which presents no striking beauties, but which, except in these places, is fluent and even.

There is no lack of published matter bearing on the subject Miss Freer has chosen, but we

do not see that she has made much addition from sources previously unexplored. If it was only her wish to digest for English readers what has been written either by the contemporaries of Anne of Austria or by the French historians, she has done more than could be required of her. But her numerous unpublished sources throw little additional light on the times and on the characters. They may very often illustrate familiar statements, or correct errors that have crept into general acceptance; but they do not possess that paramount importance which attaches to some lately-discovered MSS., and which reconciles us to the destruction of old theories as we have new ones given us of a more startling character.

We will let Miss Freer speak about one of her chief unpublished contributions to the history of the time:—

"The emotions of Mazarin at this period are jotted down in his Diary. These precious documents, called 'Les Carnets de M. de Mazarin,' bear the impress of haste—they consist, in fact, of the brief entries which the Cardinal made in a note-book, which he habitually carried in his pocket. The notes are chiefly written in the Italian language; when Mazarin was more than commonly moved, he resorted to the stronger dialect of Spain: sometimes, his notes are a strange compound of both these languages—but he rarely uses the French tongue. Mazarin's *bête noire* was Madame de Chevreuse; and of Châteauneuf, and M. de Beaufort, he also demonstrated intense distrust. Of the *menées* of the former he was well acquainted; and dreaded the power of her eloquence, and the force of habit over the mind of Anne of Austria. 'Il Rosso (Condé) states his belief,' writes Mazarin, 'that as soon as Madame de Chevreuse arrives she will cause an accommodation between the two crowns (France and Spain), to the exclusion of any other power. If Her Majesty wishes to employ Châteauneuf to accomplish this, let her speedily inform me. I have no other desire but to live in amity with those whom she may prefer. All that cabal is in arms against me. Il Rosso tells all the adherents of M. de Beauvais, that he will weed out his opponents; at the same time he sends personages to me to ask my friendship, and to promise me marvels! I know, however, that he secretly instigates Beauvais to defame me; and also Brienne and his wife. The said Rosso has said, that it would be expedient to sow distrust between Her Majesty and myself; and to make her believe that I am devoted to Monsieur, and desire to make him co-regent! Il Rosso really hates Her Majesty, and dreams only how he can humiliate her; he, moreover, states that he has the means to do so at his own good time. I am worn out with cares, being mercilessly persecuted—in the first place by Il Rosso (Condé), and by others, who believe that they would make better bargains with Her Majesty, if she were not advised by a person so disinterested and firm as myself. There are certain matters that I dare not discuss, fearing that some evil person will insinuate to Her Majesty that I maintain the maxims of the late Cardinal. In affairs there are always two aspects: if Her Majesty esteems me, considers me able, worthy of belief, and thinks that I give her good counsel, let her acknowledge it; if not, let her make election of another minister, whom she can trust, which would be more to the purpose than to waver in adopting measures. When I have had the honour to offer Her Majesty my opinion, at least she ought to believe that I have given it cordially, and without interested motives.'"

It is something to be able to follow the guiding spirit of France at such a time through the perplexities of his own mind, to witness the confusion of tongues into which excitement casts him, and even to correct his mis-spelling. Thus, he always calls Madame de Hautefort "Ofort" in his *carnets*, which reminds us of many other stories about his French pronunciation. But it is from these manuscript confessions of his above all that we see the difficulty

and danger of his position. Between the wilfulness of the Queen and the encroachments of the Parliament, between the royal prerogative and the royal house, Mazarin had no easy time. In one of these entries he compares himself to Jonah, and says he would gladly throw himself into the sea of trouble if it would be calmed by his sacrifice.

It is natural that Mazarin should be the most prominent character in Miss Freer's pages, but she is apparently content with the new light thrown upon him by his own pen. She does not attempt any portraiture of him, and she is too much immersed in the relation of his deeds to enter into the secret springs of them. Other personages come out more clearly as they are more simple. *A carte de visite* does justice to the handsome empty faces for which photographers show a natural preference, while the greatest genius is needed to reproduce all the characteristics of the head of thought or action. We do not mean to convey any reflexion on Miss Freer, but she succeeds better with such portraits as Beaufort than with Retz or Mazarin:—

"Beaufort was the delight and *enfant chéri* of the Parisian heroines of les Halles. His handsome face, his vacant but good-natured blue eyes, his long fair hair, which streamed down his back, his jovial spirits, his aptitude in speaking the *argot* of the lowest of the populace, his gallant manner when addressing even the coarsest *poissarde*, and a certain dash and bluster in deportment, rendered M. de Beaufort incomparably the most influential personage in controlling the swarming populace of the Quartiers St.-Antoine and St.-Jacques. 'You can scarcely realize the weight of these qualities, and you cannot therefore imagine their power over the people. I wanted a phantom to hide behind; and it was lucky for me that I discovered this phantom in a grandson of Henri le Grand, who spoke the language of les Halles, which is not a common qualification in a son of Henri le Grand,' writes the Coadjutor."

The character of Beaufort would not, however, be complete without the following incident:—

"While the cavaliers were washing their hands, and sauntering on the terrace, and around the table, which was already spread with viands, they perceived M. de Beaufort strutting at the head of a party of cavaliers, and advancing towards them, his white *panache* floating jauntily in the evening breeze. The cavaliers waited until Beaufort and his troop had passed, before seating themselves at table. The duke in his flurry forgetting the prudent instructions of the Coadjutor, advanced, and slightly saluting the company, rudely said, 'Messieurs, you are supping early!' De Jars replied, that they were preparing to do so. 'With better appetite, I hope, than the square-caps (the Parliament) might graze, as M. de Jarzé threatened,' retorted Beaufort, hurriedly. Then seizing the corner of the table-cloth, he said, 'that there were people in the company who had insolently boasted that they had compelled him to turn, and go out of his way to avoid them; that such an assertion was false, and that to teach the company better manners he would send them to sup elsewhere!' So saying, the duke snatched the cloth from the table, overthrowing the wine, and all the viands prepared."

We have purposely chosen extracts which give a favourable impression of Miss Freer's volumes. We do not wish it to be understood that there are not other passages of equal dramatic merit, though, as a rule, many shallows must be waded through before the stream is broken into picturesque rapids, or flows at once deep and even. But this is the inevitable drawback of histories undertaken without historical gifts; for only those works escape which are based on inaccessible materials, or wrought with art as well as industry.

OUR LIBRARY TABLE.
Biographies and Portraits of some Celebrated People. By Alphonse de Lamartine. 2 vols. (Tinsley Brothers.)

THE celebrated people of whom M. de Lamartine has here offered studies are Lord Chatham, Pitt, Shakespeare, Charlotte Corday, Madame Roland, Mirabeau, Danton, and Vergniaud. If it was originally intended by M. de Lamartine that these monographs should be collected without further extension, we cannot but wonder at the incoherence of such a list. What has Shakespeare to do among English political leaders and French Girondists? It is melancholy to perceive that one who began the career of poetry and letters so honourably as M. de Lamartine should now write only to cover paper. Though he is not without a flow of language, and occasionally what may be called lyrical grace of expression, these Biographies and Portraits are feeble in outline and faded in colour. The discriminating touch of one who can paint human beings is missing. M. de Lamartine has not a grain of humour in his composition; and without humour there can be no real appreciation of either tragedy or comedy. Compare, for instance, his treatment of Mirabeau—one of the best among these papers—with Mr. Carlyle's; the former, how sentimentally operatic! the latter, though crotchety in treatment, how rich in character! In the study of Charlotte Corday M. de Lamartine is more successful; but here there was not so much a life as an incident to depict. In his English biographies he has taken some generous pains to do justice to the high powers as a statesman of "the Pilot who weathered the storm," though his repeated references to the revelations of the hermit of Mar Elias—the half eccentric, half insane Lady Hester Stanhope—as sources of information to be relied on, make us doubt his discrimination. He is too fond of grouping, and of slashing definition withdrawal; as when he tells us that only five orators can be compared with Lord Chatham, "Demosthenes, Cicero, Mirabeau, Vergniaud, and Bossuet." But the most curious pages of these dimly yet bulky volumes are the 267 devoted to Shakespeare. In these the stories of some of the tragedies are narrated with a detail as minutely prolix as if the world had never heard of 'Macbeth,' 'Hamlet,' 'Romeo and Juliet,' 'Othello,' and 'The Merchant of Venice.' He favours us, too, with some 200 pages of literal quotation, adding here and there a remark of a pompous puerility pitifully laughable. For England, at least, such a piece of platitudine as this might have been wisely omitted from the miscellany. The work is but carelessly translated. In what dictionary is the word "defial" to be found? and it may be submitted that "L'Escaut" might have been rendered by "the Scheldt." We have marked other signs of want of care and comprehension; and the above will suffice.

Routledge's Popular Guide to London and its Suburbs. By G. F. Pardon. (Routledge & Sons.)

LET US suppose that we live in chambers in Staple Inn, or somewhere thereabout. Closely addicted to serious and engrossing studies, we have not hitherto looked around us very much; but one morning we spring from our couch with a sudden and ardent desire to see London. First of all, however, breakfast must be had, so we look up the tea and chop houses in "Routledge's Guide," and sally forth to Button's in Chancery Lane. Alas! we find a soul above buttons, an ethereal gold and silver concern, a full-blown London Joint-stock Bank, on the spot where comfortable Mrs. Button used to nourish the body. We get a roll and a glass of water at the nearest baker's shop, and hurry off to Lincoln's Inn Hall, hard by, to see Hogarth's picture of 'St. Paul before Festus and Agrippa.' We find no such picture there:—but we may inform Mr. Pardon that there is a very fine fresco by Mr. Watts, which he does not seem to have heard of. We consult our "Guide" again, and are suddenly seized with a desire to be called to the Bar, being intensely relieved by Mr. Pardon's statement that "keeping commons is no longer compulsory." Hastening to the steward's office, under the Library staircase, we are courteously but very decidedly

instructed by Mr. Doyle that the proverb "no song no supper" is reversed, and that unless we consent to dine we shall never be allowed to plead. Our spirits damped by so many disappointments, we determine to have a quiet day at the British Museum, for it is Tuesday, and Mr. Pardon tells us that the nation's splendid collection is open to the public every day except Saturday. What is our horror on stepping out of our Hansom and reading on a conspicuous board—Open on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, throughout the year, and on Saturday in May, June, July, and August! Thus perpetually foiled in the heart of the capital, we rush to the Gower Street station of the Metropolitan Railway, resolved to seek consolation in the unromantic recesses of Kensington Gardens. "Where to?" mutters the clerk, in the middle of a sandwich.—"Right through," we reply somewhat snappishly, for our patience is nearly exhausted. We fling ourselves into the comfortable carriage, and forget our indignation in balmy slumbers. The genius of dreams presents to us a charming vision of a perfect guide, philosopher and friend, who puts everything in its right place and tells us the right time to see it; but we are roused from the soothing contemplation by shrill cries of "Amersmith, Amersmith, 'smith, 'smith, 'smith!" We shout out fiercely, "What is this Hammersmith? Mr. Pardon's Guide says you only go to Kensington!"—"Oo's Mr. Pardon!" cries the indignant official; "I've a 'card tell of Bradshaw's Guide, but I never 'card tell o' he." The fiery engine shrieks in derision, like a caustic demon, and we retire in dudgeon, fully resolved to write to the *Times*; but thinking better of it, after a little dinner at the "London" (which Mr. Pardon has forgotten to mention among City dining-houses), we take up the pen of sober criticism, and write in the *Athenæum* instead.

Merridew's Guide to Boulogne-sur-Mer. Illustrated. Revised by R. B. Hinchliffe. (Boulogne-sur-Mer, Merridew; London, Simpkin, Marshall & Co.)

Everybody goes, has been, or will go, to Boulogne-upon-the-Sea, a town which, notwithstanding the popular French belief to the contrary, still belongs to the British, and illustrates in its pleasant, sunny, but sometimes unsavoury streets a sort of half-and-half state of things, pleasanter, but probably less comfortable than most English places of resort. A new edition of this handy guide-book is acceptable; the maps are useful and more correct than is customary with the class of works to which this one belongs. Some of these books are deplorably incorrect; of one of them we bought not long since the so-called fourteenth edition (1863), with a view to a Belgian trip, and found it to be disgracefully incorrect, meagre and antiquated as to Belgium, that fine subject, and in no respect comparable with Mr. Weale's admirable "Belgium, Aix-la-Chapelle, and Cologne" (Dawson). Thus guide-books differ. Mr. Hinchliffe's little work is of the superior class, which, whenever an opportunity occurs, we are bound to commend.

Le Turco. Par Edmond About. (Hachette & Co.)

"Le Turco" is the principal story of nine contained in a little volume of nearly three hundred pages. The collection resembles in some sort the rough sketch-book of a dashing and cynical artist, in which everything is clever, with some exaggeration of features, but with skill in every stroke. In "Le Turco" there are some pretty accounts of skirmishes in Algeria, which are the best things in the book. There are other sketches, which men may glance at and pass on, perhaps look around lest youth and innocence should be looking at the pages as they are turned over. It is not that there is great offence in the book, though it is given by implication. In short, this is not altogether whole-some or profitable reading. The author only hurts his own high reputation by publishing such pictures of French domestic life as are to be found in these narratives.

We have on our Table New Editions of *Curiosities of Literature*, by I. D'Israeli (Routledge), —The *Trail of the Serpent*, by the Author of

'Lady Audley's Secret' (Ward, Lock & Tyler), —*Rachel Ray: a Novel*, by Anthony Trollope (Chapman & Hall), —*Lindisfarne Chase: a Novel*, by Thomas Adolphus Trollope (Chapman & Hall), —*Gildersoy: a Scottish Tradition*, by Robert S. Fittin (Routledge), —and *Misrepresentation: a Novel*, by Anna H. Drury (Chapman & Hall). We have also the following Pamphlets: *How to Treat Cholera: a Guide for Parish and Local Officers, Sanitary Committees, Clergymen, &c.*, on the Means to Avert Cholera, or to Alleviate its Severity when Present, with various Recent Instructions by Her Majesty's Most Honourable Privy Council, and best Authorities on its Treatment, by James John Scott (Knight & Co.), —*On the Application of Disinfectants in Arresting the Spread of the Cattle Plague*: Report to Her Majesty's Commissioners, by William Crookes (Hutton), —*The Class and the Desk: a Manual for Teachers*; being Notes of Preparation for the Sunday School (Sanger), —and *The One God and Father of All*: a Sermon preached before the Supporters of the British and Foreign Unitarian Association, at their Annual Meeting, in the Unitarian Church, Hackney, May 23, 1866, by Charles Wicksteed, B.A. (Whitfield, Green & Son).

LIST OF NEW BOOKS.

Atkins's *The Average Clause, &c.* cr. 8vo. 5/- cl. Bradshaw's *Atlas for Travellers in the Plain and Mountainous Regions of the British Isles*, 12mo. 2/- cl. Brewster's *Whale Fishery*, 12mo. 1/- cl. Crompton's *The Agency of the Church, &c.* 12mo. 4/- cl. Edinburgh University Examination-Papers, 1866, 8vo. 1/- awd. Edwards's *The Three Louises*, 3 vols. post 3/- cl. Edwards's *Reminiscences of a Bengal Civilian*, cr. 8vo. 7/- cl. Neale's *Specimens of the English Poets*, 12mo. 1/- cl. Notes and Expositions by J. N. D., 12mo. 2/- cl. Public Schools Latin Primer, 12mo. 2/- cl. Railway Lib.: "Moods" by L. M. Alcott, 12mo. 1/- awd. *Practical Modern Engineering*, 12mo. 1/- cl. Reid's *African War, a Southern Tale*, 8vo. 10/- cl. Slater's *Religious Opportunities of the Heathen before Christ*, 2/6 cl. Smith's *Principia Latina*, Part 5, 12mo. 3/- cl. Stalau's *Mater Speciosus*, trans. by Neale, 1/- cl. *Practical Reference and General Hist. of Birmingham*, 14/- cl. Tom Tracy's *Brier Hill*, 18mo. 1/- cl. Tracts, by a Layman, 12mo. 2/- cl. Walker's *Philosophy of Divine Operation*, 12mo. 1/- cl. Wealth and Warfare, by Gotthelf, 2 vols. cr. 8vo. 21/- cl.

BRITISH ASSOCIATION.

Nottingham, August 22, 1866.

FROM King's Cross to Hitchin the railway possesses the usual features of the roads leading northwards out of London; but as the traveller approaches, upon the Midland route, the flat green meadows of Bedford, with the silvery rivers winding through them, the scenery becomes very different from anything to be seen on either the North-Western or the Great Northern lines. After this the rich pastures of Leicestershire are traversed, and at last a looming grey haze notifies the approach to the great manufacturing town of lace and stockings. Ruddy and homely, with antique names of streets betokening the former extents of Castle and town walls, and of ancient churches and monasteries,—with innumerable short streets and long hills,—with new and extensive factories intermingled with quaint old houses,—with its large triangular market like the *place* in a French *ville*, contrasting with its fast improving thoroughfares,—Nottingham is one of the cleanest, best paved, comeliest of any of the busy towns the Association has of late years visited. The Theatre is a fine building, and presented a brilliant audience to listen to the President. Mr. Grove's address constituted a lucid, simple, and truly philosophical theme, worthy of the attention it received.

The General Committee Meeting was held at one o'clock, when everything passed off with even more than the usual unanimity. Prof. Phillips presided. The Report of the Council was first read (after the minutes of the previous meeting had been confirmed).

"Report of the Council."

"The Council have the honour to report as follows:—The Council have received a Report from the Treasurer at each of their meetings, and a Report for the year will be presented to the General Committee this day. The Report of the Par-

liamentary Committee has been received for presentation to the General Committee. The Kew Committee have presented to the Council a Report for the year 1865-66, which will be laid before the General Committee this day. The Council have added to the list of Corresponding Members the names of the following men of science who attended the Birmingham meeting, viz.: Capt. Belavener, Geheimrath von Dechen, M. Gaudry, Prof. Grube, Prof. Kiepert, Prof. F. Römer, Chev. C. Negri, Prof. Steenstrup. The Council recommend that the names of Mr. J. Hind and Mr. T. Close be added to the list of Vice-Presidents of the Meeting. In consequence of the resignation of Mr. Hopkins as Joint General Secretary, announced last year, the Council appointed a Committee, consisting of the General Secretaries, and the gentlemen who had formerly filled that office, for the purpose of taking into consideration and reporting to the Council on the advisability of nominating a Joint General Secretary. The Council have received the following Report, viz.: 'That Thomas Archer Hirst, Esq., Ph.D., Professor of Mathematical Physics in University College, London, be recommended as highly qualified for election as Joint General Secretary of the Association.' The Council recommend that Mr. Hirst be elected Joint General Secretary. The Council have been informed that invitations for future meetings of the Association have been received from Dundee, Norwich, Plymouth, and Exeter."

The Treasurer's Report was next made.—

The General Treasurer's Account,
From September 6, 1865 (commencement of Birmingham Meeting), to August 22, 1866 (Nottingham).

RECEIPTS.

To balance brought from last Account	£759 2 6
Life Compositions at Birmingham and since	440 0 0
Annual Subscriptions	671 0 0
Associates' Tickets	768 0 0
Ladies' Tickets	508 0 0
Dividends on Stock, one year	250 15 0
Sale of Publications, viz.:—	
Reports	45 2 8
Index, Catalogue of Stars, &c.	53 12 10
	£3,495 13 0

PAYMENTS.

Expenses of Birmingham Meeting, sundry	
Printing, Binding, Advertising, and incidental	
Petty Expenses	£259 5 9
Printing, Engraving, and Binding Report of	
34th Meeting, "Bath,"	632 3 9
Sales for Twelve Months	350 0 0
On Account of Grants made at the Birmingham	
Meeting, viz.:—	
Maintaining the Establishment of Kew Observatory	
Lunar Committee	600 0 0
Kilkenny Coalfields	64 13 4
Abum Bay Fossil Leaf Bed	16 0 0
Balloon Committee	50 0 0
Metrical Committee	50 0 0
For Committee on	
British Rainfall	50 0 0
Kilkenny Coalfields	16 0 0
Abum Bay Fossil Leaf Bed	15 0 0
Luminous Meteors	50 0 0
Lingula Flags Excavations	20 0 0
Chemical Constitution of Cast Iron	50 0 0
Amyl Compounds	25 0 0
Electrical Standards	100 0 0
Malta Caves Exploration	30 0 0
Kent's Hole Exploration	200 0 0
Marine Fauna, &c., Devon and Cornwall	25 0 0
Dredging Aberdeenshire Coast	25 0 0
Dredging Hebrides Coast	50 0 0
Residence of Water to Floating Bodies	5 0 0
Polyianides of Organic Radicals	20 0 0
Rigia Mortis	10 0 0
Irish Annelsida	15 0 0
Catalogue of Crania	50 0 0
Didine Birds of Mascaren Islands	60 0 0
Typical Crania Researches	30 0 0
Palestine Exploration Fund	100 0 0
Balances at London and Westminster	
Bank	£500 12 11
Due in hands of General Treasurer	2 17 3
	503 10 2
	£3,495 13 0

£3,495 13 0

(Signed) W. SPOTTISWOODE.
Then followed the Report of the Kew Committee.

Report of the Kew Committee for 1865-66.

The Committee of the Kew Observatory submit to the Council of the British Association the following statement of their proceedings during the past year:—

A unifilar and dip-circle for Capt. J. Belavener, of the Russian Navy, Director of the Compass Observatory at Cronstadt, have been verified at Kew Observatory and forwarded to Russia. Three unifilars and three dip-circles,

ordered by Col. Strange for the Indian Survey, have been verified. Dr. Kirk, who has gone out to Zanzibar on the African coast, has received instruction at Kew Observatory; and a dip-circle, a clinometer, and an azimuth compass have been verified for him, and his sextant. In consequence of a representation from Mr. C. Chambers, Acting Superintendent of the Observatory, Bombay, a correspondence has taken place between the Director of the India Store Department and the Chairman of the Kew Committee, the result of which is that the Committee have superintended the construction of an aneroidometer, a dip-circle, and a clinometer for the Bombay Observatory. These instruments have been verified, and are now in the hands of the India Board for transmission to their destination. The Admiralty have ordered a clinometer and a dip-circle for Capt. Mayne, of Her Majesty's ship *Nassau*, who is about to proceed to the Straits of Magellan; these instruments have been verified at Kew Observatory, where Capt. Mayne and several of his officers have likewise received instruction in magnetism.

Dr. Buys-Ballot has ordered a declination-magnetograph, which has been constructed by Mr. Adie, and forwarded to Trichinopoly, where it has safely arrived. A set of self-recording magnetographs and also a barograph have been ordered by the Stonyhurst Observatory; and the Rev. Walter Sidgwick has been to the Observatory receiving instruction in magnetism. The self-recording magnetographs for Stonyhurst have been verified and despatched to their destination. The set of self-recording instruments ordered by Mr. Meldrum, of the Mauritius Observatory, are at present at Kew; Mr. Meldrum intends to visit the Kew Observatory for the purpose of making himself further acquainted with the process of observing and deducing results previous to his return to the Mauritius. Mr. Ellery, of Melbourne Observatory, has likewise ordered a set of self-recording magnetographs. These have been constructed by Mr. Adie, and will be taken to Kew for verification when the set for Mauritius have been removed. Prof. Smirnow (from Kasan) has received instruction in magnetism at the Observatory. The usual monthly absolute determinations of the magnetic elements continue to be made by Mr. Whipple, Magnetic Assistant, and the self-recording magnetographs are in constant operation as heretofore, also under Mr. Whipple, who has displayed his usual care and assiduity in the discharge of his duties. The photographic department connected with the self-recording instruments is under the charge of Mr. Page, who performs his duties very satisfactorily. A stone stove free from iron has been erected in the room containing the Kew magnetographs, and by its means this room has been heated through a range of 20° Fahr., in order to determine the temperature correction of the horizontal and vertical force magnetographs. The observations for this purpose are being reduced.

The meteorological work of the Observatory continues in charge of Mr. Baker, who executes his duties very satisfactorily. Since the Birmingham Meeting 126 barometers have been verified, and 8 standard thermometers constructed at the Observatory. The self-recording barograph continues in constant operation; and traces in duplicate are obtained, one set of which is regularly forwarded to the meteorological department of the Board of Trade. An arrangement for a self-recording thermograph has been devised by the Superintendent and by Mr. Beckley, and, as a preliminary experiment gave a very satisfactory curve, the instrument is now being arranged in a suitable site. The instruments used by the late Mr. Appold for regulating the temperature and moisture of his apartments have been forwarded by the Royal Society to the Kew Observatory.

The Indian pendulum observations are in active progress. Both Col. Walker and Capt. Basavi are in correspondence with the Observatory in discussing questions relating to this work. The Superintendent has received 100^l from the Government Grant Committee of the Royal Society for preliminary observation with Capt. Kater's pendulum. These preliminary observations are in progress under the charge of Mr. Loewy as observer, and have the following points in view:—1. To see by the general agreement or non-agreement of the observations with each other whether Capt. Kater's pendulum is still in a state to justify its adoption as an instrument to give a correct determination of the length of the seconds pendulum. 2. To determine the true temperature correction of the pendulum. 3. To use Kater's pendulum, and also the Royal Society's invariable pendulum No. 8, for the purpose of determining a curve of correction for atmospheric pressure, from inch to inch, at low pressures.

The Superintendent has received 50^l from the Government Grant Fund of the Royal Society, to pursue the experiments on a rotating disk.

The Kew heliograph, in charge of Mr. De La Rue, continues to be worked in a very satisfactory manner. During the past year 222 negatives have been taken on 158 days, and the usual number of positives have been printed from them. Since the last Meeting of the Association, the first set of the results obtained by this instrument have been published at the expense of Mr. De La Rue, under the following title:—*Researches on Solar Physics*, by Warren De La Rue, B. Stewart, and B. Loewy; First Series; On the Nature of Sun-spots. The present progress of the work of reduction will best be seen from the following letter, written by Mr. De La Rue, in answer to a request made through the Astronomer Royal by Padre Sechi, to know what was doing in this country in the subject of heliography.

“110, Bunhill Row, August 5th, 1866.

“My dear Sir.—In reference to the extract from Padre Sechi's letter, I beg to supply the following information: The pictures taken by means of the Kew heliograph are all measured by means of my micrometer; the positions of the spots are then reduced to distance in terms (fractional parts) of the sun's radius, and the angles of position corrected for any error in the position of the wires. Pictures of the Pagoda are taken from time to time, and the

measurements of the various galleries of the Pagoda serve to determine the optical distortion of the sun's image and the corrections to be applied to the sun-pictures. The heliocentric latitudes and longitudes of the spots are then calculated. The areas of the spots and the penumbras are also measured, and the areas corrected for perspective are tabulated in terms (fractional parts) of the area of the sun's disk. The areas of the spots, &c., on all of Cartwright's original pictures have recently been measured, and an account of these measurements will be shortly published. Padre Sechi will be able to judge, from the foregoing statement, whether it will be worth while to undertake the work he proposes. The measurements obtainable from photographs are much more reliable than those from projected images.—I am, yours very truly,

(Signed) “WARREN DE LA RUE.”

“E. J. Stone, Esq.”

The Association will regret to learn the deaths of Dr. Sabler and M. Gussew, in consequence of which the Wilna heliograph is not at work.

M. Smylloff, of the Pulkowa Observatory, has been appointed Director of the Wilna Observatory, by the Imperial Academy of Sciences of St. Petersburg. M. O. Strzelecki having asked for information respecting the working of the heliograph, it has been suggested to him by the Kew Committee that it would be advisable for M. Smylloff to visit the Kew Observatory to see the instrument in operation. The sun-spots continue to be observed after the method of Hofrat Schwabe, of Dessau, and the valuable collection of drawings lent by this eminent observer remains at the Observatory. These have been supplemented by the beautiful series of detailed drawings of spots made by the Rev. F. Howlett, which gentleman has deposited at Kew.

The apparatus for verifying sextants alluded to in last Report has now been constructed by Mr. Cooke, and is being erected at the Observatory.

About three-fourths of the region of the solar spectrum between E and F has been mapped by the spectroscope belonging to the Chairman. The spectroscope is now in London, the work appertaining to the staff at the Observatory not permitting sufficient time for further observation with this instrument.

The instrument devised by Mr. Broun for the purpose of estimating the magnetic dip by means of soft iron remains at present at the Observatory, awaiting Mr. Broun's return to England.

The Superintendent has received grants from the Royal Society for special experiments; and when these are completed, an account will be rendered to that Society.

The Report of a Committee appointed to consider certain questions relating to the Meteorological Department of the Board of Trade, and presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty, has been communicated to the members of the Kew Committee, and has been otherwise widely circulated among the meteorologists of the British Association. The object of the Report is expressed in the following terms: “Upon the death of the late Admiral FitzRoy, a correspondence took place between the Board of Trade and the Royal Society with respect to the Meteorological Department of the Board of Trade. The result of that correspondence was the appointment of a Committee, consisting of the following gentlemen, viz. Francis Galton, Esq., F.R.S., General Secretary of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, nominated by the President and Council of the Royal Society; Staff Commander Evans, R.N., F.R.S., Chief Naval Assistant to the Hydrographer of the Admiralty, by the Admiralty; T. H. Farrer, Esq., one of the Secretaries to the Board of Trade, by the Board of Trade,—to consider and report upon the following questions: 1. What are the data, especially as regards meteorological observations at sea, already collected by and now existing in the Meteorological Department of the Board of Trade? 2. Whether any and what steps should be taken for arranging, tabulating, publishing, or otherwise making use of such data. 3. Whether it is desirable to continue meteorological observations at sea, and if so, to what extent, and in what manner. 4. Assuming that the system of weather telegraphy is to be continued, can the mode of carrying it on and publishing the results be improved? 5. What staff will be necessary for the above purposes?”

The authors of the Report arrive at the following conclusions in respect to the ocean statistics, weather telegraphy, foretelling weather, and observations affecting weather in the British Isles:—“The collection of observations from the captains of ships is a function which can probably best be performed through the medium of such agencies as a Government Office can command, and which was, in fact, well performed by the Meteorological Department before its attention was devoted to the practice of foretelling weather. We assume, therefore, that this function will remain with the Board of Trade. The digesting and tabulating results of observations is, on the other hand, a function which requires a large knowledge of what the state of the science for the time being requires, as well as exact scientific method. This function is one that has not been satisfactorily performed by the Meteorological Department. And we believe that it would be much better as well as more economically performed under the direction of a scientific body—such as a Committee of the Royal Society, or of the British Association, if furnished with the requisite funds by the Government—than it will be if left to a Government department. The establishment already existing at Kew might probably be easily developed, so as to carry into effect such a purpose. It would, in that case, become a meteorological centre, to which all observations of value (by British observers), whether made on land or at sea, and whether within the British Isles or not, would be sent for discussion and reduction. We have, therefore, in the following estimates, assumed that all meteorological observations made on land, whether at the stations recommended by the Royal Society, or at the lighthouses or coast-guard stations, as well as all observations at sea, shall

be referred to and discussed under the direction of such a scientific body as we have mentioned; and we have also assumed that the aid afforded by Government would be in the shape of an annual vote, so made as to leave the Royal Society, or other scientific body charged with the duty, perfectly free in their method and in their choice of labour, but upon the condition that an account shall be rendered to Parliament of the money spent, and of the results effected in each year.”

The Kew Committee have examined this Report, and speaking in general terms, they cordially acquiesce in the conclusions of its authors. They consider the proposed arrangement to fall within the competence of the Kew Observatory.

In the last Kew Report it was stated that many experiments and observations of a nature to advance science are made by the Committee under the sanction of the Association, the cost of each being defrayed by the promoters.

The Committee consider that the suggested observations contained in the Government Report which has been referred to would be merely an extension of the usual practice of the Observatory; but in consideration of the magnitude of the work proposed, they suggest that the Council should bring the subject before the General Committee, with the view of the Kew Committee being authorized to discuss and make the necessary arrangements with the Board of Trade, should any proposal be made.

The Committee are also desirous of bringing under the consideration of the Council the expediency of proceeding in the formation of a memoir on the periodic and non-periodic variations of the temperature at Kew, as a normal station of British meteorology. Similar works have for some years past occupied the attention of the most eminent amongst the continental meteorologists, as being, in fact, the foundation of all scientific knowledge of the climatology of their respective countries. A memoir on the periodic and non-periodic variations of the temperature at the magnetic and meteorological observatory at Toronto, in Canada, has been printed in the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1853; but no such work has yet been systematically undertaken at Kew, although it is quite in accordance with the objects for which the Observatory was instituted, in familiarizing British meteorologists with a system of tabulation they have hitherto unduly neglected. Daily photographs, taken from the thermograph constructed under Mr. Stewart's direction, will supply in the most unexceptionable manner the observational basis on which the memoir would be founded. To obtain such photographs would constitute a very small addition to the duties of the assistant, by whom the daily photographs of the magnetical instruments are taken. The tabulation from the daily photographs of the temperature would be the only increase of any moment to the ordinary present work of the Observatory, and would require, possibly, the part services of an additional young assistant. The tabulation would supply twenty-four equidistant entries in every solar-day. The tables containing these entries, together with the photographs, after careful inspection by a proper authority, would be preserved for subsequent use. Five, or at most six, years would constitute quite a sufficient basis for the determination of the periodic variations forming the first part of the proposed work, and would require about a couple of months of superintending care on the part of the person who might be director of the Observatory when the observations of the five or six years should have accumulated. Nothing more than ordinary clerk's work under such general superintendence would be required. Should the Board of Trade be disposed to avail itself of the suggestion which has been made to them in respect to the Kew Observatory, the publication which has been suggested would become one of its first important duties.

J. P. GASSIOR, Chairman.

Kew Observatory, August 17, 1866.

Accounts of the Kew Committee of the British Association from Sept. 6, 1865, to August 22, 1866.

RECEIPTS.

Balance from last account	£26 14 8
Received from the General Treasurer	600 0 0
For the Verification of Meteorological Instruments—	
From the Board of Trade	12 15 0
From the Admiralty	14 15 0
From opticians	28 0 0
For Barograph Curves sent to the Meteorological Office, London	26 1 5
For the Construction of Standard Thermometers	1 10 0
For the Verification of Portable Magnetometers	15 0 0
For the Verification of Self-recording Magnetographs	30 0 0

£754 16 1

PAYMENTS.

Salaries, &c.:	—
To B. Stewart, four quarters, ending 1st October, 1866	£200 0 0
Ditto, allowed for petty travelling expenses	10 0 0
G. Whipple, four quarters, ending 18th September, 1866	100 0 0
T. Baker, four quarters, ending 29th September, 1866	75 0 0
R. Beckley, 50 weeks, ending 20th August, 1866, at 40s. per week	100 0 0
F. Page, 30 weeks, ending 2nd April, 1866, at 12s. per week	18 0 0
Ditto, two quarters, ending 2nd October, 1866, at 40s. per annum	20 0 0
Apparatus, materials, tools, &c.	35 8 3
Ironmonger, carpenter, and mason	18 6 3
Printing, stationery, books, and postage	36 15 10
Coals and gas	49 11 6
House expenses, chandlery, &c.	30 5 3
Portage and petty expenses	18 16 3
Rent of land to 10th October, 1866	11 0 0
Rent of pillars for sextants	2 10 0

Brushwood for ditch	6 13 0
Balance	22 9 9
	<hr/>
	£754 16 1
I have examined the above account and compared it with the vouchers presented to me.	
The balance from the last year	£26 14 8
Received from the Treasurer of the British Association	600 0 0
From sundries, for the construction and verification of instruments	128 1 5
	<hr/>
The total expenditure for the year	754 16 1
	<hr/>
Leaving a balance in hand amounting to £22 9 9	
10th August, 1866.	R. HUTTON.

The next was the Report of the Parliamentary Committee.—

"Report of the Parliamentary Committee."

The Parliamentary Committee have the honour to report as follows:—Your Committee have to express their regret that another session of Parliament has been allowed to pass away without any step having been taken by the legislature to promote the study of science in our great public schools. In the last session, however, an Act was passed to amend the Acts relating to the Imperial Standards of Weight, Measure, and Capacity. The Act was introduced chiefly for the purpose of carrying out the recommendations of a Treasury Committee, which reported in 1864, and it will effect some very useful reforms in the constitution of the office having the custody of the imperial standards, whereby the whole organization of the department will be placed on a more scientific basis. An officer is appointed to be called the Warden of the Standards; and due provision is made for the periodical comparison of the imperial and secondary standards, a matter which had hitherto been very much neglected. A provision is for the first time made for defining the amount of error to be tolerated in secondary standards; there is also a clause in which it is stated to be the duty of the warden 'to conduct all such comparisons, verifications, and other operations with reference to standards of length, weight, and capacity, in aid of scientific researches, or otherwise, as the Board of Trade from time to time authorize or direct.'

Your Committee have also to express their regret, that no steps have as yet been taken to re-organize the Meteorological Department of the Board of Trade, and carry out the valuable suggestions of the Report of Mr. Francis Galton and his colleagues, presented to Parliament during the last session. Your Committee will not fail to advocate such measures as may be necessary for placing this department on a satisfactory footing. They will neither be unmindful of the part which they took in its original establishment, nor of the benefits which it has already conferred, and which, if successfully re-organized, it will continue to confer on meteorological science. In conclusion, we recommend that Sir Henry Rawlinson be elected a member of our Committee.

WROTTESLEY, Chairman.

August 15, 1866.

The Report of the Parliamentary Committee gave rise to some remarks from Mr. James Heyworth, invoking its assistance in respect to some modification of the present manner of conducting law cases relating to scientific subjects, it being desired by the speaker that a law should be passed to enable Judges to call in the assistance of a competent expert on such occasions. The motion was favourably supported by Sir John Bowring, Prof. Williamson, and others.—Lord Wrottesley, the chairman of the Committee, acknowledging his readiness to entertain the subject when brought before him in due official course.

The number of members enrolled up to the eve of the proceedings amounted to nearly two thousand. Before those proceedings commenced the Council of the Association received a renewed invitation from Dundee for the meeting of the Association in that city in 1867. Invitations were also received from Exeter, Norwich and Plymouth. At eight o'clock, Mr. Walter Montgomery's theatre, the internal aspect of which is so much more beautiful than that of the exterior, was crowded by a

brilliant assembly, all of whom were in full dress. Prof. Phillips having made the usual farewell observations in the character of retiring President, and introduced his successor, Mr. Grove, Q.C., the latter gentleman proceeded to deliver

The President's Address.

Gentlemen of the British Association,—If our rude predecessors, who at one time inhabited the caverns which surround this town, could rise from their graves and see it in its present state, it may be doubtful whether they would have sufficient knowledge to be surprised.

The machinery, almost resembling organic beings in delicacy of structure, by which you fabricate products of world-wide reputation, the powers of matter applied to give motion to that machinery, are so far removed from what must have been the conceptions of the semi-barbarians to whom I have alluded, that they could not look on them with intelligent wonder.

Yet this immense progress has all been effected step by step, now and then a little more sudden than at other times; but, viewing the whole course of improvement, it has been gradual, though moving in an accelerated ratio. But it is not merely in those branches of natural knowledge which tend to improvements in economical arts and manufactures, that science has made great progress. In the study of our own planet and the organic beings with which it is crowded, and in so much of the universe as vision, aided by the telescope, has brought within the scope of observation, the present century has surpassed any antecedent period of equal duration.

It would be difficult to trace out all the causes which have led to the increase of observational and experimental knowledge.

Among the more thinking portion of mankind the gratification felt by the discovery of new truths, the expansion of faculties, and extension of the boundaries of knowledge have been doubtless a sufficient inducement to the study of nature; while, to the more practical minds, the reality, the certainty, and the progressive character of the acquisitions of natural science, and the enormously increased means which its applications give, have impressed its importance as minister to daily wants and a contributor to ever-increasing material comforts, luxury, and power.

Though by no means the only one, yet an important cause of the rapid advance of science is the growth of associations for promoting the progress either of physical knowledge generally or of special branches of it. Since the foundation of the Royal Society, now more than two centuries ago, a vast number of kindred societies have sprung up in this country and in Europe. The advantages conferred by these societies are manifold; they enable those who are devoted to scientific research to combine, compare, and check their observations, to assist, by the thoughts of several minds, the promotion of the inquiry undertaken; they contribute from a joint purse to such efforts as their members deem most worthy; they afford a means of submitting to a competent tribunal notices and memoirs, and of obtaining for their authors and others, by means of the discussions which ensue, information given by those best informed on the particular subject; they enable the author to judge whether it is worth while to pursue the subjects he has brought forward, and they defray the expense of printing and publishing such researches as are thought deserving of it.

These advantages, and others might be named, pertain to the Association the thirty-sixth meeting of which we are this evening assembled to inaugurate; but it has, from its intermittent and peripatetic character, advantages which belong to none of the societies which are fixed as to their locality. Among these are the novelty and freshness of an annual meeting, which, while it brings together old Members of the Association, many of whom only meet on this occasion, always adds a quota of new Members, infusing new blood, and varying the social character of our meetings.

The visits of distinguished foreigners, whom we have previously known by reputation, is one of the most delightful and improving of the results. The wide field of inquiry, and the character of commun-

ications made to the Association, including all branches of natural knowledge, and varying from simple notices of an interesting observation or experiment to the most intricate and refined branches of scientific research, is another valuable characteristic.

Lastly, perhaps the greatest advantage resulting from the annual visits of this great parliament to new localities is that, while it imparts fresh local knowledge to the visitors, it leaves behind stimulating memories, which rouse into permanent activity dormant or timid minds—an effect which, so far from ceasing with the visit of the Association, frequently begins when that visit terminates.

Every votary of physical science must be anxious to see it recognized by those institutions of the country which can to the greatest degree promote its cultivation and reap from it the greatest benefit. You will probably agree with me that the principal educational establishments on the one hand, and on the other the Government, in many of its departments, are the institutions which may best fulfil these conditions. The more early the mind is trained to a pursuit of any kind, the deeper and more permanent are the impressions received, and the more service can be rendered by the students.

*Quo semel est imbuta recente, servabit odorem
Testa diu.*

Little can be achieved in scientific research without an acquaintance with it in youth; you will rarely find an instance of a man who has attained any eminence in science who has not commenced its study at a very early period of life. Nothing, again, can tend more to the promotion of science than the exertions of those who have early acquired the *ηθος* resulting from a scientific education. I desire to make no complaint of the tardiness with which science has been received at our public schools and, with some exceptions, at our universities. These great establishments have their roots in historical periods, and long time and patient endeavour are requisite before a new branch of thought can be grafted with success on a stem to which it is exotic. Nor should I ever wish to see the study of languages, of history, of all those refined associations which the past has transmitted to us, neglected; but there is room for both. It is sad to see the number of so-called educated men who, travelling by railway, voyaging by steamboat, consulting the almanac for the time of sunrise or full moon, have not the most elementary knowledge of a steam-engine, a barometer, or a quadrant; and who will listen with a half-confessed faith to the most idle predictions as to weather or comet influences, while they are in a state of crass ignorance as to the cause of the trade-winds or the form of a comet's path. May we hope that the slight infiltration of scientific studies, now happily commenced, will extend till it occupies its fair space in the education of the young, and that those who may be able learnedly to discourse on the *Æolic digamma* will not be ashamed of knowing the principles of an air-pump, an electrical machine, or a telescope, and will not, as Bacon complained of his contemporaries, despise such knowledge as something mean and mechanical.

To assert that the great departments of Government should encourage physical science may appear truisim, and yet it is but of late that it has been seriously done; now, the habit of consulting men of science on important questions of national interest is becoming a recognized practice, and in a time, which may seem long to individuals, but is short in the history of a nation, a more definite sphere of usefulness for national purposes will, I have no doubt, be provided for those duly-qualified men who may be content to give up the more tempting study of abstract science for that of its practical applications. In this respect the Report of the Kew Committee for this year affords a subject of congratulation to those whom I have the honour to address. The Kew Observatory, the petted child of the British Association, may possibly become an important national establishment; and if so, while it will not, I trust, lose its character of a home for untrammelled physical research, it will have superadded the Meteorological Department of the Board of Trade with a staff of skilful and experienced observers.

This is one of the results which the general growth of science, and the labours of this Association in particular, have produced; but I do not propose on this occasion to recapitulate the special objects attained by the Association—this has been amply done by several of my predecessors; nor shall I confine my address to the progress made in physical science since the time when my most able and esteemed friend and predecessor addressed you at Birmingham. In the various reports and communications which will be read at your Sections, details of every step which has been made in science since our last meeting will be brought to your notice, and I have no doubt fully and freely discussed.

I purpose, with your kind permission, to submit to you certain views of what has within a comparatively recent period been accomplished by science, what have been the steps leading to the attained results, and what, as far as we may fairly form an opinion, is the general character pervading modern discovery.

It seems to me that the object we have in view would be more nearly approached, by each President, chosen as they are in succession as representing different branches of science, giving on these occasions either an account of the progress of the particular branch of science he has cultivated, when that is not of a very limited and special character, or enunciating his own view of the general progress of science; and though this will necessarily involve much that belongs to recent years, the confining a President to a mere *résumé* of what has taken place since our last meeting would, I venture with diffidence to think, limit his means of usefulness, and render his discourse rather an annual register than an instructive essay.

I need not dwell on the commonplace but yet important topics of the material advantages resulting from the application of science; I will address myself to what, in my humble judgment, are the lessons we have learnt and the probable prospects of improved natural knowledge.

One word will give you the key to what I am about to discourse on; the word is *continuity*,—no new word, and used in no new sense, but perhaps applied more generally than it has hitherto been. We shall see, unless I am much mistaken, that the development of observational, experimental, and even deductive knowledge is either attained by steps so extremely small as to form really a continuous ascent; or, when distinct results apparently separate from any co-ordinate phenomena have been attained that then, by the subsequent progress of science, intermediate links have been discovered uniting the apparently segregated instances with other more familiar phenomena.

Thus the more we investigate, the more we find that in existing phenomena graduation from the like to the seemingly unlike prevails, and in the changes which take place in time, gradual progress is, and apparently must be, the course of nature.

Let me now endeavour to apply this view to the recent progress of some of the more prominent branches of science.

In Astronomy, from the time when the earth was considered a flat plain bounded by a flat ocean,—when the sun, moon, and stars were regarded as lanterns to illuminate this plain,—each successive discovery has brought with it similitudes and analogies between this earth and many of the objects of the universe with which our senses, aided by instruments, have made us acquainted. I pass, of course, over those discoveries which have established the Copernican system as applied to our sun, its attendant planets, and their satellites. The proofs, however, that gravitation is not confined to our solar system, but pervades the universe, have received many confirmations by the labours of members of this Association; I may name those who have held the office of President, Lord Rosse, Lord Wrottesley, and Sir J. Herschel, the two latter having devoted special attention to the orbits of double stars, the former to those probably more recent systems called nebulae. Double stars seem to be orbs analogous to our own sun and revolving round their common centre of gravity in a conic-section curve, as do the planets with which we are more intimately acquainted; but the nebulae pre-

sent more difficulty, and some doubt has been expressed whether gravitation, such as we consider it, acts with those bodies (at least those exhibiting a spiral form) as it does with us; possibly some other modifying influence may exist, our present ignorance of which gives rise to the apparent difficulty. There is, however, another class of observations quite recent in its importance, and which has formed a special subject of contribution to the Reports and Transactions of this Association; I allude to those on Meteorites, at which our lamented member, and to many of us our valued friend, Prof. Baden Powell, assiduously laboured, for investigations into which a Committee of this Association is formed, and a series of star-charts for enabling observers of shooting-stars to record their observations was laid before the last meeting of the Association by Mr. Glaisher.

It would occupy too much of your time to detail the efforts of Bessel, Schwinke, the late Sir J. Lubbock, and others, as applied to the formation of star-charts for aiding the observation of meteorites, which Mr. Alexander Herschel, Mr. Brayley, Mr. Sorby, and others, are now studying.

Dr. Olmsted explained the appearance of a point from which the lines of flight of meteors seem to radiate, as being the perspective vanishing-point of their parallel or nearly parallel courses appearing to an observer on the earth as it approaches them. The uniformity of position of these radiant points, the many corroborative observations on the direction, the distances, and the velocities of these bodies, the circumstance that their paths intersect the earth's orbit at certain definite periods, and the total failure of all other theories which have been advanced, while there is no substantial objection to this, afford evidence almost amounting to proof that these are cosmical bodies moving in the interplanetary space by gravitation round the sun, and some perhaps round planets. This view gives us a new element of continuity. The universe would thus appear not to have the extent of empty space formerly attributed to it, but to be studded between the larger and more visible masses with smaller planets, if the term be permitted to be applied to meteorites.

Observations are now made at the periods at which meteors appear in greatest numbers,—at Greenwich by Mr. Glaisher, at Cambridge by Prof. Adams, and at Hawkhurst by Mr. Alexander Herschel,—and every preparation is made to secure as much accuracy as can, in the present state of knowledge, be secured for such observations.

The number of known asteroids, or bodies of a smaller size than what are termed the ancient planets, has been so increased by numerous discoveries, that instead of seven we now count eighty-eight as the number of recognized planets—a field of discovery with which the name of Hind will be ever associated.

If we add these, the smallest of which is only three or four miles in diameter, indeed cannot be accurately measured, and if we were to apply the same scrutiny to other parts of the heavens as has been applied to the zone between Mars and Jupiter, it is no far-fetched speculation to suppose that between these asteroids and the meteorites bodies of intermediate size exist until the space occupied by our solar system becomes filled up with planetary bodies, varying in size from that of Jupiter (1,240 times larger in volume than the earth) to that of a cannon-ball or even a pistol-bullet.

The researches of Leverrier on the intra-mercurial planets come in aid of these views; and another half-century may, and not improbably will, enable us to ascertain that the now seemingly vacant interplanetary spaces are occupied by smaller bodies, which have hitherto escaped observation, just as the asteroids had until the time of Olbers and Piazzi. But the evidence of continuity as pervading the universe does not stop at telescopic observation; chemistry and physical optics bring us new proofs. Those meteoric bodies which have from time to time come so far within reach of the earth's attraction as to fall upon its surface, give on analysis metals and oxides similar to those which belong to the structure of the earth—they come as travellers bringing specimens of minerals from extra-terrestrial regions.

In a series of papers recently communicated to the French Academy, M. Daubrée has discussed the chemical and mineralogical character of meteorites as compared with the rocks of the earth. He finds that the similarity of terrestrial rocks to meteorites increases as we penetrate deeper into the earth's crust, and that some of the deep-seated minerals have a composition and characteristics almost identical with meteorites (olivine, herzolite and serpentine, for instance, closely resemble them); that as we approach the surface, rocks having similar components with meteorites are found, but in a state of oxidation, which necessarily much modifies their mineral character, and which, by involving secondary oxygenized compounds, must also change their chemical constitution. By experiments he has succeeded in forming from terrestrial rocks substances very much resembling meteorites. Thus close relationship, though by no means identity, is established between this earth and those wanderers from remote regions, some evidence, though at present incomplete, of a common origin.

Surprise has often been expressed that, while the mean specific gravity of this globe is from five to six times that of water, the mean specific gravity of its crust is barely half as great. It has long seemed to me that there is no ground for wonder here. The exterior of our planet is, in all probability, free from oxygen, and whatever bodies exist there are in a reduced or deoxidized state,—if so, their specific gravity must necessarily be higher than that of their oxides or chlorides, &c. We find, moreover, that some of the deep-seated minerals have a higher specific gravity than the average of those on the surface; olivine, for instance, has a specific gravity of 3.3. There is, therefore, no *a priori* improbability that the mean specific gravity of the earth should notably exceed that of its surface; and if we go further, and suppose the interior of the earth to be formed of the same ingredients as the exterior, minus oxygen, chlorine, bromine, &c., a specific gravity of 5 to 6 would not be an unlikely one. Many of the elementary bodies entering largely into the formation of the earth's crust are as light or lighter than water,—for instance, potassium, sodium, &c.; others, such as sulphur, silicon, aluminium, have from two to three times its specific gravity; others, again, as iron, copper, zinc, tin, seven to nine times; while others, lead, gold, platinum, &c., are much more dense,—but, speaking generally, the more dense are the least numerous. There seems no improbability in a mixture of such substances producing a mean specific gravity of from 5 to 6, although it by no means follows, indeed the probability is rather the other way, that the proportions of the substances in the interior of the earth are the same as on the exterior. It might be worth the labour to ascertain the mean specific gravity of all the known minerals on the earth's surface, averaging them in the ratios in which, as far as our knowledge goes, they quantitatively exist, and assuming them to exist without the oxygen, chlorine, &c. with which they are, with some rare exceptions, invariably combined on the surface of the earth. Great assistance to the knowledge of the probable constitution of the earth might be derived from such an investigation.

While chemistry, analytic and synthetic, thus aids us in ascertaining the relationship of our planet to meteorites, its relation in composition to other planets, to the sun, and to more distant suns and systems, is aided by another science, viz. optics.

That light passing from one transparent medium to another should carry with it evidence of the source from which it emanates, would, until lately, have seemed an extravagant supposition; but probably (could we read it) everything contains in itself a large portion of its own history.

I need not detail to you the discoveries of Kirchhoff, Bunsen, Miller, Huggins, and others; they have been dilated on by my predecessor. Assuming that spectrum analysis is a reliable indication of the presence of given substances by the position of transverse bright lines exhibited when light is transmitted through their vapours, though Plücher

has shown that with some substances these lines vary with temperature, the point of importance in the view I am presenting to you is, that while what may be called comparatively neighbouring cosmical bodies exhibit lines identical with many of those shown by the components of this planet, as we proceed to the more distant appearances of the nebulae we get but one or two of such lines, and we get one or two new bands not yet identified with any known to be produced by substances on this globe.

Within the last year Mr. Huggins has added to his former researches observations on the spectrum of a comet (comet 1 of 1866), the nucleus of which shows but one bright line, while the spectrum formed by the light of the coma is continuous, seeming to show that the nucleus is gaseous while the coma would consist of matter in a state of minute division shining by reflected light: whether this be solid, liquid, or gaseous is doubtful, but the author thinks it is in a condition analogous to that of fog or cloud. The position in the spectrum of the bright line furnished by the nucleus is the same as that of nitrogen, which also is shown in some of the nebulae.

But the most remarkable achievement by spectrum analysis is the record of observations on a temporary star which has shone forth this year in the constellation of the northern crown, about a degree S.E. of the star α . When it was first seen, May 12th, it was nearly equal in brilliancy to a star of the second magnitude; when observed by Mr. Huggins and Dr. Miller, May 16th, it was reduced to the third or fourth magnitude. Examined by these observers with the spectroscope, it gave a spectrum, which they state was unlike that of any celestial body they had examined.

The light was compound, and had emanated from two different sources. One spectrum was analogous to that of the sun, viz., formed by the light of an incandescent solid or liquid photosphere which had suffered absorption by the vapours of an envelope cooler than itself. The second spectrum consisted of a few bright lines, which indicated that the light by which it was formed was emitted by matter in the state of luminous gas. They consider that, from the position of two of the bright lines, the gas must be probably hydrogen; and from their brilliancy compared with the light of the photosphere, the gas must have been at a very high temperature. They imagine the phenomena to result from the burning of hydrogen with some other element, and that from the resulting temperature the photosphere is heated to incandescence.

There is strong reason to believe that this star is one previously seen by Argelander and Sir J. Herschel, and that it is a variable star of long or irregular period. It is also notable that some of its spectrum lines correspond with those of several variable stars. The time of its appearance was too short for any attempt to ascertain its parallax. It would have been important if it could even have been established that it is not a near neighbour, as the magnitude of such a phenomenon must depend upon its distance. I forbear to add any speculations as to the cause of this most singular phenomenon. However imperfect the knowledge given us by these observations, it is a great triumph to have caught this fleeting object, and obtained permanent records for the use of future observers.

It would seem as if the phenomenon of gradual change obtained towards the remotest objects with which we are at present acquainted, and that the further we penetrate into space the more unlike to those we are acquainted with become the objects of our examination,—sun, planets, meteorites, earth similarly though not identically constituted, stars differing from each other and from our system, and nebulae more remote in space and differing more in their characters and constitution.

While we thus can to some extent investigate the physical constitution of the most remote visible substances, may we not hope that some further insight as to the constitution of the nearest, viz., our own satellite, may be given us by this class of researches? The question whether the moon possesses any atmosphere may still be regarded as unsolved. If there be any, it must be exceedingly

small in quantity and highly attenuated. Calculations, made from occultation of stars, on the apparent differences of the semidiameter of the bright and dark moon give an amount of difference which might indicate a minute atmosphere, but which Mr. Airy attributes to irradiation.

Supposing the moon to be constituted of similar materials to the earth, it must be, to say the least, doubtful whether there is oxygen enough to oxidate the metals of which she is composed; and if not, the surface which we see must be metallic, or nearly so. The appearance of her craters is not unlike that seen on the surface of some metals, such as bismuth, or, according to Prof. Phillips, silver, when cooling from fusion and just previous to solidifying; and it might be a fair subject of inquiry whether, if there be any coating of oxide on the surface, it may not be so thin as not to disguise the form of the congealed metallic masses, as they may have set in cooling from igneous fusion. M. Chacornac's recent observations lead him to suppose that many of the lunar craters were the result of a single explosion, which raised the surface as a bubble and deposited its debris around the orifice of eruption.

The eruptions on the surface of the moon clearly did not take place at one period only, for at many parts of the disk craters may be seen encroaching on and disfiguring more ancient craters, sometimes to the extent of three or four successive displacements: two important questions might, it seems to me, be solved by an attentive examination of such portions of the moon. By observing carefully with the most powerful telescope the character of the ridges thus successively formed, the successive states of the lunar surface at different epochs might be elucidated; and secondly, as on the earth we should look for actual volcanic action at those points where recent eruptions have taken place, so on the moon the more recently active points being ascertained by the successive displacement of anterior formations, it is these points which should be examined for existing disruptive disturbances. Metius and Fabricius might be cited as points of this character, having been found by M. Chacornac to present successive displacements and to be perforated by numerous channels or cavities. M. Chacornac considers that the seas, as they are called, or smoother portions of the lunar surface have at some time made incursions on anteriorly-formed craters; if so, a large portion of the surface of the moon must have been in a fused, liquid, semi-liquid, or alluvial state long after the solidifying of other portions of it. It would be difficult to suppose that this state was one of igneous fusion, for this could hardly exist over a large part of the surface without melting up the remaining parts; on the other hand, the total absence of any signs of water, and of any, or, if any, only the most attenuated atmosphere, would make it equally difficult to account for a large diluvial formation.

Some substances, like mercury on this planet, might have remained liquid after others had solidified; but the problem is one which needs more examination and study before any positive opinion can be pronounced.

I cannot pass from the subject of lunar physics without recording the obligation we are under to our late President for his most valuable observations and for his exertion in organizing a band of observers devoted to the examination of this our nearest celestial neighbour, and to Mr. Nasmyth and Mr. De La Rue for their important graphical and photographic contributions to this subject. The granular character of the sun's surface observed by Mr. Nasmyth in 1860 is also a discovery which ought not to be passed over in silence.

Before quitting the subject of Astronomy, I cannot avoid expressing a feeling of disappointment that the achromatic telescope, which has rendered such notable service to this science, still retains in practice the great defect which was known a century ago, at the time of Hall and Dollond, namely, the inaccuracy of definition arising from what was termed the irrationality of the spectrum, or the incommensurate divisions of the spectra formed by flint and crown glass.

The beautiful results obtained by Blair have

remained inoperative from the circumstance that evaporable liquids being employed between the lenses, a want of permanent uniformity in the instrument was experienced; and notwithstanding the high degree of perfection to which the grinding and polishing object-glasses has been brought by Clarke, Cooke, and Mertz,—notwithstanding the greatly improved instrumental manufacture, the defect to which I have adverted remains unremedied and an eyesore to the observer with the refracting telescope.

We have now a large variety of different kinds of glass formed from different metallic oxides. A list of many such was given by M. Jacquelain a few years back; the last specimen which I have seen is a heavy, highly-refracting glass, formed from the metal thallium by M. Lamy. Among all these could no two or three be selected which, having appropriate refracting and dispersing powers, would have the coloured spaces of their respective spectra, if not absolutely in the same proportions, at all events much more nearly so than those of flint and crown glass? Could not, again, oily or resinous substances having much action on the green or middle colour of the spectrum, such as castor oil, canada balsam, &c., be made use of in combination with glass lenses to reduce, if not annihilate, this signal defect? This is not a problem to the solution of which there seems any insuperable difficulty; the reason why it has not been solved is, I incline to think, that the great practical opticians have no time at their disposal to devote to long tentative experiments and calculations, and, on the other hand, the theoretic opticians have not the machinery and the skill in manipulation requisite to give the appropriate degree of excellence to the materials with which they experiment; yet the result is worth labouring for, as, could the defect be remedied, the refracting telescope would make nearly as great an advance upon its present state as the achromatic did on the single lens refractor.

While gravitation, physical constitution, and chemical analysis by the spectrum show us that matter has similar characteristics in other worlds than our own, when we pass to the consideration of those other attributes of matter which were at one time supposed to be peculiar kinds of matter itself, or, as they were called, imponderables, but which are now generally, if not universally, recognized as forces or modes of motion, we find the evidence of continuity still stronger.

When all that was known of magnetism was that a piece of steel rubbed against a particular mineral had the power of attracting iron, and, if freely suspended, of arranging itself nearly in a line with the earth's meridian, it seemed an exceptional phenomenon. When it was observed that amber, if rubbed, had the temporary power of attracting light bodies, this also seemed something peculiar and anomalous. What are now magnetism and electricity? Forces so universal, so apparently connected with matter as to become two of its invariable attributes; and that to speak of matter not being capable of being affected by these forces would seem almost as extravagant as to speak of matter not being affected by gravitation.

So with light, heat, and chemical affinity, not merely is every form of matter with which we are acquainted capable of manifesting all these modes of force, but so-called matter supposed incapable of such manifestations would to most minds cease to be matter.

Further than this, it seems to me (though, as I have taken an active part for many years, now dating from a quarter of a century, in promoting this view, I may not be considered an impartial judge), that it is now proved that all these forces are so invariably connected *inter se* and with motion, as to be regarded as modifications of each other, and as resolving themselves objectively into motion, and subjectively into that something which produces or resists motion, and which we call force.

I may perhaps be permitted to recall a forgotten experiment, which nearly a quarter of a century ago I showed at the London Institution,—an experiment simple enough in itself, but which then seemed to me important, from the consequences to be deduced from it, and the importance of which will be much better appreciated now than then.

A train of multiplying wheels ended with a small metallic wheel which, when the train was put in motion, revolved with extreme rapidity against the periphery of the next wheel, wooden one. If the metallic wheel was placed a small piece of phosphorus, and as long as the wheels revolved, the phosphorus remained unchanged, but the moment the last wheel was stopped by moving a small lever attached to it, the phosphorus burst into flame. My object was to show that while motion of the mass continued, heat was not generated, but that when this was arrested, the force continuing to operate, the motion of the mass became heat in the particles. The experiment differed from that of Rumford's cannon-boring and Davy's friction of ice, in showing that there was no heat while the motion was unresisted, but that the heat was in some way dependent on the motion being impeded or arrested. We have now become so accustomed to this view, that whenever we find motion resisted we look to heat, electricity, or some other force as the necessary and inevitable result.

It would be out of place here, and treating of matters too familiar to the bulk of my audience, to trace how, by the labours of Oersted, Seebeck, Faraday, Talbot, Daguerre, and others, the way has been prepared for the generalization now known as the correlation of forces or conservation of energy, while Davy, Rumford, Seguin, Mayer, Joule, Helmholtz, Thomson, and others (among whom I would not name myself, were it not that I may be misunderstood) and supposed to have abandoned all claim to a share in the initiation of this, as I believe, important generalization) have carried on the work; and how, sometimes by independent and, as is commonly the case, nearly simultaneous deductions, sometimes by progressive and accumulated discoveries, the doctrine of the reciprocal interaction, of the quantitative relation, and of the necessary dependence of all the forces has, I think I may venture to say, been established.

If magnetism be, as it is proved to be, connected with the other forces or affections of matter, if electrical currents always produce, as they are proved to do, lines of magnetic force at right angles to their lines of action, magnetism must be cosmical; for where there is heat and light, there is electricity, and consequently magnetism. Magnetism, then, must be cosmical, and not merely terrestrial. Could we trace magnetism in other planets and suns as a force manifested in axial or meridional lines, *i.e.* in lines cutting at right angles the curves formed by their rotation round an axis, it would be a great step; but it is one hitherto unaccomplished. The apparent coincidences between the maxima and minima of solar spots, and the decennial or undecennial periods of terrestrial magnetic intensity, though only empirical at present, might tend to lead us to a knowledge of the connexion we are seeking; and the President of the Royal Society considers that an additional epoch of coincidence has arrived, making the fourth decennial period; but some doubt is thrown upon these coincidences by the magnetic observations made at Greenwich Observatory. In a paper published in the *Transactions* of the Royal Society, 1863, the Astronomer Royal says, speaking of results extending over seventeen years, there is no appearance of decennial cycle in the recurrence of great magnetic disturbances; and Mr. Glaisher last year, in the Physical Section of this Association, stated that, after persevering examination, he had been unable to trace any connexion between the magnetism of the earth and the spots on the sun.

Mr. Airy, however, in a more recent paper, suggests that currents of magnetic force having reference to the solar spots are detected, and seem to produce vortices or circular disturbances; and he invites further co-operative observation on the subject, one of the highest interest, but at present remaining in great obscurity.

One of the most startling suggestions as to the consequence resulting from the dynamical theory of heat is that made by Mayer, that by the loss of *vis viva* occasioned by friction of the tidal waves, as well as by their forming, as it were, a drag upon the earth's rotatory movement, the velocity of the earth's rotation must be gradually diminishing, and that thus, unless some undiscovered compensa-

tory action exist, this rotation must ultimately cease, and changes hardly calculable take place in the solar system.

M. Delaunay considers that part of the acceleration of the moon's mean motion which is not at present accounted for by planetary disturbances, to be due to the gradual retardation of the earth's rotation; to which view, after an elaborate investigation, the Astronomer Royal has given his assent.

Another most interesting speculation of Mayer is that with which you are familiar, *viz.*, that the heat of the sun is occasioned by friction or percussion of meteorites falling upon it: there are some difficulties, not perhaps insuperable, in this theory. Supposing such cosmical bodies to exist in sufficient numbers, they would, as they revolve round the sun, fall into it, not as an aérolite falls upon the earth directly by an intersection of orbits, but by the gradual reduction in size of the orbits, occasioned by a resisting medium; some portion of force would be lost, and heat generated in space by friction against such medium; when they arrive at the sun they would, assuming them, like the planets, to have revolved in the same direction, all impinge in a definite direction, and we might expect to see some symptoms of such in the sun's photosphere; but though this is in a constant state of motion, and the direction of these movements has been carefully investigated by Mr. Carrington and others, no such general direction is detected; and M. Faye, who some time ago wrote a paper pointing out many objections to the theory of solar heat being produced by the fall of meteoric bodies into the sun, has recently investigated the proper motions of sun-spots, and believes he has removed certain apparent anomalies and reduced their motions to a certain regularity in the motion of the photosphere, attributable to some general action arising from the internal mass of the sun.

It might be expected that comets, bodies so light and so easily deflected from their course, would show some symptoms of being acted on by gravitation, were such a number of bodies to exist in or near their paths, as are pre-supposed in the mechanical theory of solar heat.

Assuming the undulatory theory of light to be true, and that the motion which constitutes light is transmitted across the interplanetary spaces by a highly-elastic ether, then, unless this motion is confined to one direction, unless there be no interference, unless there be no viscosity, as it is now termed, in the medium, and consequently no friction, light must lose something in its progress from distant luminous bodies, that is to say, must lose something as light; for, as all reflecting minds are now convinced that force cannot be annihilated, the force is not lost, but its mode of action is changed. If light, then, is lost as light (and the observations of Struve seem to show this to be so, that, in fact, a star may be so far distant that it can never be seen in consequence of its luminous emissions becoming extinct), what becomes of the transmitted force lost as light, but existing in some other form? So with heat: our sun, our earth, and planets are constantly radiating heat into space, so in all probability are the other suns, the stars, and their attendant planets. What becomes of the heat thus radiated into space? If the universe have no limit, and it is difficult to conceive one, there is a constant evolution of light and heat; and yet more is given off than is received by each cosmical body, for otherwise night would be as light and as warm as day. What becomes of the enormous force thus apparently non-recurrent in the same form? Does it return as palpable motion? Does it move or contribute to move suns and planets? and can it be conceived as a force similar to that which Newton speculated on as universally repulsive and capable of being substituted for universal attraction? We are in no position at present to answer such questions as these; but I know of no problem in celestial dynamics more deeply interesting than this, and we may be no further removed from its solution than the predecessors of Newton were from the simple dynamical relation of matter to matter which that potent intellect detected and demonstrated.

Passing from extra-terrestrial theories to the narrower field of Molecular Physics, we find the

doctrine of Correlation of Forces steadily making its way. In the Bakerian Lecture for 1863 Mr. Sorby shows, not perhaps a direct correlation of mechanical and chemical forces, but that when, either by solution or by chemical action, a change in volume of the resulting substance as compared with that of its separate constituents is effected, the action of pressure retards or promotes the change, according as the substance formed would occupy a larger or a smaller space than that occupied by its separate constituents; the application of these experiments to geological inquiries as to subterranean changes which may have taken place under great pressure is obvious, and we may expect to form compounds under artificial compression which cannot be found under normal pressure.

In a practical point of view the power of converting one mode of force into another is of the highest importance, and with reference to a subject which at present, somewhat prematurely perhaps, occupies men's minds, *viz.*, the prospective exhaustion of our coal-fields, there is every encouragement derivable from the knowledge that we can at will produce heat by the expenditure of other forces; but, more than that, we may probably be enabled to absorb or store up, as it were, diffused energy—for instance, Berthelot has found that the potential energy of formate of potash is much greater than that of its proximate constituents, caustic potash and carbonic oxide. This change may take place spontaneously and at ordinary temperatures, and by such change carbonic oxide becomes, so to speak, re-invested with the amount of potential energy which its carbon possessed before uniting with oxygen, or, in other words, the carbonic oxide is raised as a force-possessor to the place of carbon by the direct absorption or conversion of heat from surrounding matter.

Here we have, as to force-absorption, an analogous result to that of the formation of coal from carbonic acid and water; and though this is a mere illustration, and may never become economical on a large scale, still it and similar examples may calm apprehension as to future means of supplying heat, should our present fuel become exhausted. As the sun's force, spent in times long past, is now returned to us from the coal which was formed by that light and heat, so the sun's rays, which are daily wasted, as far as we are concerned, on the sandy deserts of Africa, may hereafter, by chemical or mechanical means, be made to light and warm the habitations of the denizens of colder regions. The tidal wave is, again, a large reservoir of force hitherto almost unused.

The valuable researches of Prof. Tyndall on radiant heat afford many instances of the power of localizing, if the term be permitted, heat which would otherwise be dissipated.

The discoveries of Graham, by which atmospheric air, drawn through films of caoutchouc, leaves behind half its nitrogen, or, in other words, becomes richer by half in oxygen, and hence has a much increased potential energy, not only show a most remarkable instance of physical molecular action, merging into chemical, but afford us indications of means of storing up force, much of the force used in working the aspirator being capable at any period, however remote, of being evolved by burning the oxygen with a combustible.

What changes may take place in our modes of applying force before the coal-fields are exhausted it is impossible to predict. Even guesses at the probable period of their exhaustion are uncertain. There is a tendency to substitute for smelting in metallurgical processes, liquid chemical action, which of course has the effect of saving fuel; and the waste of fuel in ordinary operations is enormous, and can be much economized by already known processes. It is true that we are, at present, far from seeing a practical mode of replacing that granary of force the coal-fields; but we may with confidence rely on invention being in this case, as in others, born of necessity, when the necessity arises.

I will not further pursue this subject; at a time when science and civilization cannot prevent large tracts of country being irrigated by human blood in order to gratify the ambition of a few restless men, it seems an over-refined sensibility to occupy

ourselves with providing means for our descendants in the tenth generation to warm their dwellings or propel their locomotives.

Two very remarkable applications of the convertibility of force have been recently attained by the experiments of Mr. Wilde and Mr. Holz; the former finds that, by conveying electricity from the coils of a magneto-electric machine to an electro-magnet, a considerable increase of electrical power may be attained, and by applying this as a magneto-electric machine to a second, and in turn to a third electro-magnetic apparatus, the force is largely augmented. Of course, to produce this increase, more mechanical force must be used at each step to work the magneto-electric machines; but provided this be supplied there hardly seems a limit to the extent to which mechanical may be converted into electrical force.

Mr. Holz has contrived a Franklinic electrical machine, in which a similar principle is manifested. A varnished glass plate is made to revolve in close proximity to another plate having two or more pieces of card attached, which are electrified by a bit of rubbed glass or ebonite; the moment this is effected a resistance is felt by the operator who turns the handle of the machine, and the slight temporary electrization of the card converts into a continuous flood of intense electricity the force supplied by the arm of the operator.

These results offer great promise of extended application; they show that, by a mere formal disposition of matter, one force can be converted into another, and that not to the limited extent hitherto attained, but to an extent co-ordinate, or nearly so, with the increased initial force, so that, by a mere change in the arrangement of apparatus, a means of absorbing and again eliminating in a new form a given force may be obtained to an indefinite extent. As we may, in a not very distant future, need, for the daily uses of mankind, heat, light, and mechanical force, and find our present resources exhausted, the more we can invent new modes of conversion of forces, the more prospect we have of practically supplying such want. It is but a month from this time that the greatest triumph of force-conversion has been attained. The chemical action generated by a little salt water on a few pieces of zinc will now enable us to converse with inhabitants of the opposite hemisphere of this planet, and

Put a girdle round about the earth in forty minutes. The Atlantic Telegraph is an accomplished fact.

In Physiology very considerable strides are being made by studying the relation of organized bodies to external forces; and this branch of inquiry has been promoted by the labours of Carpenter, Bence Jones, Playfair, E. Smith, Franklin, and others. Vegetables acted on by light and heat decompose water, ammonia and carbonic acid, and transform them into, among other substances, oxalate of lime, lactic acid, starch, sugar, stearine, urea, and ultimately albumen; while the animal reverses the process, as does vegetable decay, and produces from albumen, urea, stearine, sugar, starch, lactic acid, oxalate of lime, and ultimately ammonia, water, and carbonic acid.

As, moreover, heat and light are absorbed, or converted in forming the synthetic processes going on in the vegetable, so, conversely, heat and sometimes light is given off by the living animal; but it must not be forgotten that the line of demarcation between a vegetable and an animal is difficult to draw, that there are no single attributes which are peculiar to either, and that it is only by a number of characteristics that either can be defined.

The series of processes above given may be simulated by the chemist in his laboratory; and the amount of labour which a man has undergone in the course of twenty-four hours may be approximately arrived at by an examination of the chemical changes which have taken place in his body; changed forms in matter indicating the anterior exercise of dynamical force. That muscular action is produced or supported by chemical change would probably now be a generally-accepted doctrine; but while many have thought that muscular power is derived from the oxidation of albuminous or nitrogenized substances, several recent researches seem to show

that the latter is rather an accompaniment than a cause of the former, and that it is by the oxidation of carbon and hydrogen compounds that muscular force is supplied. Traube has been prominent in advancing this view, and experiments detailed in a paper published this year by two Swiss professors, Drs. Fich and Wislicenus, which were made by and upon themselves in an ascent of the Faulhorn, have gone far to confirm it. Having fed themselves before and during the ascent, upon starch, fat, and sugar, avoiding all nitrogenized compounds, they found that the consumption of such food was amply sufficient to supply the force necessary for their expedition, and that they felt no exhaustion. By appropriate chemical examination they ascertained that there was no notable increase in the oxidation of the nitrogenized constituents of the body. After calculating the mechanical equivalents of the combustion effected, they then state, as their first conclusion, that "The burning of protein substances cannot be the only source of muscular power, for we have here two cases in which men performed more measurable work than the equivalent of the amount of heat, which, taken at a most absurdly high figure, could be calculated to result from the burning of the albumen."

They further go on to state that, so far from the oxidation of albuminous substances not being the only source of muscular power, "the substances by the burning of which force is generated in the muscles are not the albuminous constituents of those tissues, but non-nitrogenous substances, either fats or hydrates of carbon," and that the burning of albumen is not in any way concerned in the production of muscular power.

We must not confuse the question of the food which gives permanent capability of muscular force with that which supplies its requisites for temporary activity; no doubt the carnivora are the most powerfully-constituted animals, but the chamois, gazelle, &c., have great temporary capacity for muscular exertion, though their food is vegetable; for concentrated and sustained energy, however, they do not equal the carnivora; and with the domestic graminivora we certainly find that they are capable of performing more work when supplied with those vegetables which contain the greatest quantity of nitrogen.

These and many similar classes of research show that in chemical inquiries, as in other branches of science, we are gradually relieving ourselves of hypothetical existences, which certainly had the advantage that they might be varied to suit the requirements of the theorist.

Phlogiston, as Lavoisier said with a sneer, was sometimes heavy, sometimes light; sometimes fire in a free state, sometimes combined; sometimes passing through glass vessels, sometimes retained by them; which by its protean changes explained causticity and non-causticity, transparency and opacity, colours and their absence. As phlogiston and similar creations of the mind have passed away, so with hypothetic fluids, imponderable matters, specific ethers, and other inventions of entities made to vary according to the requirements of the theorist, I believe the day is approaching when these will be dispensed with, and when the two fundamental conceptions of matter and motion will be found sufficient to explain physical phenomena.

The facts made known to us by Geological inquiries, while on the one hand they afford striking evidence of Continuity, on the other, by the breaks in the record, may be used as arguments against it. The great question once was, whether these chasms represent sudden changes in the formation of the earth's crust, or whether they arise from dislocations occasioned since the original deposition of strata, or from gradual shifting of the areas of submergence. Few geologists of the present day would, I imagine, not adopt the latter alternatives. Then comes a second question, whether, when the geological formation is of a continuous character, the different characters of the fossils represent absolutely permanent varieties, or may be explained by gradual modifying changes.

Prof. Ansted, summing up the evidence on this head as applied to one division of stratified rocks, writes as follows: "Palæontologists have endeav-

oured to separate the Lias into a number of subdivisions, by the Ammonites, groups of species of those shells being characteristic of different zones. The evidence on this point rests on the assumption of specific differences being indicated by permanent modifications of the structure of the shell. But it is quite possible that these may mean nothing more than would be due to some change in the conditions of existence. Except between the Marlstone and the Upper Lias there is really no palæontological break, in the proper sense of the words; alterations of form and size consequent on the occurrence of circumstances more or less favourable, migration of species, and other well-known causes, sufficiently account for many of those modifications of the form of the shell that have been taken as specific marks. This view is strengthened by the fact that other shells and other organisms generally show no proof of a break of any importance except at the point already alluded to."

But, irrespectively of another deficiency in the geological record, which will be noticed presently, the physical breaks in the stratification make it next to impossible to fairly trace the order of succession of organisms by the evidence afforded by their fossil remains. Thus there are nine great breaks in the Palæozoic series, four in the Secondary, and one in the Tertiary, besides those between Palæozoic and Secondary and Secondary and Tertiary respectively. Thus in England there are sixteen important breaks in the succession of strata, together with a number of less important interruptions. But although these breaks exist, we find pervading the works of many geologists a belief, resulting from the evidence presented to their minds, sometimes avowed, sometimes unconsciously implied, that the succession of species bears some definite relation to the succession of strata. Thus Prof. Ramsay says that "in cases of superposition of fossiliferous strata, in proportion as the species are more or less continuous, that is to say, as the break in the succession of life is partial or complete, so was the time that elapsed between the close of the lower and the commencement of the upper strata a shorter or a longer interval. The break in life may be indicated not only by a difference in species, but yet more importantly by the absence of older and appearance of newer allied or unallied genera."

Indications of the connexion between cosmical studies and geological researches are dawning on us: there is, for instance, some reason to believe that we can trace many geological phenomena to our varying rotation round the sun; thus more than thirty years ago Sir J. Herschel proposed an explanation of the changes of climate on the earth's surface as evidenced by geological phenomena, founded on the changes of eccentricity in the earth's orbit.

He said he had entered on the subject "impressed with the magnificence of that view of geological revolutions which regards them rather as regular and necessary efforts of great and general causes, than as resulting from a series of convulsions and catastrophes regulated by no laws and reducible to no fixed principles."

As the mean distance of the earth from the sun is nearly invariable, it would seem at first sight that the mean annual supply of light and heat received by the earth would also be invariable; but according to his calculations it is inversely proportional to the minor axis of the orbit: this would give less heat when the eccentricity of the earth's orbit is approaching towards or at its minimum. Mr. Crroll has recently shown reason to believe that the climate, at all events in the circumpolar and temperate zones of the earth, would depend on whether the winter of a given region occurred when the earth at its period of greatest eccentricity was in aphelion or perihelion—if the former, the annual average of temperature would be lower; if the latter, it would be higher than when the eccentricity of the earth's orbit were less or approached more nearly to a circle. He calculated the difference in the amount of heat at the period of maximum eccentricity of the earth's orbit to be as 19 to 26, according as the winter would take place when the earth was in aphelion or in perihelion. His reason may be briefly stated

thus: assuming the mean annual heat to be the same, whatever the eccentricity of orbit, yet if the extremes of heat and cold in winter and summer be greater, a colder climate will prevail, for there will be more snow and ice accumulated in the cold winter than the hot summer can melt, a result produced by the vapour (aided by the shelter from the sun's rays) suspended in consequence of the aqueous evaporation; hence we should get glacial periods, when the orbit of the earth is at its greatest eccentricity, at those parts of the earth's surface where it is winter when the earth is in aphelion; carboniferous or hot periods where it is winter in perihelion; and normal or temperate periods when the eccentricity of orbit is at a minimum; all these would gradually slide into each other, and would produce at long distant periods alternations of cold and heat, several of which we actually observe in geological records.

If this theory be borne out, we should approximate to a test of the time which has elapsed between different geological epochs. Mr. Croll's computation of this would make it certainly not less than 100,000 years since the last glacial epoch, a time not very long in geological chronology—probably it is much more.

When we compare with the old theories of the earth, by which the apparent changes on its surface were accounted for by convulsions and cataclysms, the modern view inaugurated by Lyell, your former President, and now, if not wholly, at all events to a great extent adopted, it seems strange that the referring past changes to similar causes to those which are now in operation should have remained uninvestigated until the present century; but with this, as with other branches of knowledge, the most simple is frequently the latest view which occurs to the mind. It is much more easy to invent a *Deus ex machina* than to trace out the influence of slow continuous change; the love of the marvellous is so much more attractive than the patient investigation of truth, that we find it to have prevailed almost universally in the early stages of science.

In astronomy we had crystal spheres, cycles, and epicycles; in chemistry the philosopher's stone, the elixir vita, the archæus or stomach demon, and phlogiston; in electricity the notion that amber possessed a soul, and that a mysterious fluid could knock down a steeple. In paleontology a deluge or a volcano was supplied. In paleontology a new race was created whenever theory required it: how such new races began, the theorist did not stop to inquire.

A curious speculator might say to a paleontologist of even recent date, in the words of Lucretius,

*Nam neque de celo cedidit animalia possunt
Nec terrestria de salis exisse lacunis.*

* * * * *

E nihil si crescere possent,
(Tum) fierent juvenes subito ex infantibus parvis,
E terraque exorts repente arbusta salirent;
Quorum nihil fieri manifestum est, omnia quando
Paulatim crescent, ut pœst, semine certo,
Crescentes genit servans.

—which may be thus freely paraphrased: "You have abandoned the belief in one primeval creation at one point of time; you cannot assert that an elephant existed when the first saurians roamed over earth and water. Without, then, in any way limiting Almighty power, if an elephant were created without progenitors, the first elephant must, in some way or other, have physically arrived on this earth. Whence did he come? did he fall from the sky (i.e. from the interplanetary space)? did he rise moulded out of a mass of amorphous earth or rock? did he appear out of the cleft of a tree? If he had no antecedent progenitors, some such beginning must be assigned to him." I know of no scientific writer who has, since the discoveries of geology have become familiar, ventured to present in intelligible terms any definite notion of how such an event could have occurred. Those who do not adopt some view of continuity are content to say, God willed it; but would it not be more reverent and more philosophical to inquire by observation and experiment, and to reason from induction and analogy, as to the probabilities of such frequent miraculous interventions?

I know I am touching on delicate ground, and

that a long time may elapse before that calm inquiry after truth which it is the object of associations like this to promote can be fully attained; but I trust that the members of this body are sufficiently free from prejudice, whatever their opinions may be, to admit an inquiry into the general question whether what we term species are and have been rigidly limited, and have at numerous periods been created complete and unchangeable, or whether, in some mode or other, they have not gradually and indefinitely varied, and whether the changes due to the influence of surrounding circumstances, to efforts to accommodate themselves to surrounding changes, to what is called natural selection, or to the necessity of yielding to superior force in the struggle for existence, as maintained by our illustrious countryman Darwin, have not so modified organisms as to enable them to exist under changed conditions. I am not going to put forward any theory of my own, I am not going to argue in support of any special theory, but having endeavoured to show how, as science advances, the continuity of natural phenomena becomes more apparent, it would be cowardice not to present some of the main arguments for and against continuity as applied to the history of organic beings.

As we detect no such phenomenon as the creation or spontaneous generation of vegetables and animals which are large enough for the eye to see without instrumental assistance, as we have long ceased to expect to find a *Plesiosaurus* spontaneously generated in our fish-pond, or a *Pterodactyl* in our pheasant-cover, the field of this class of research has become identified with the field of the microscope, and at each new phase the investigation has passed from a larger to a smaller class of organisms. The question whether among the smallest and apparently the most elementary forms of organic life the phenomenon of spontaneous generation obtains, has recently formed the subject of careful experiment and animated discussion in France. If it could be found that organisms of a complex character were generated without progenitors out of amorphous matter, it might reasonably be argued that a similar mode of creation might obtain in regard to larger organisms. Although we see no such phenomenon as the formation of an animal such as an elephant, or a tree such as an oak, excepting from a parent which resembles it, yet if the microscope revealed to us organisms, smaller but equally complex, so formed without having been reproduced, it would render it not improbable that such might have been the case with larger organic beings. The controversy between M. Pasteur and M. Pouchet has led to a very close investigation of this subject; and the general opinion is, that when such precautions are taken as exclude from the substance submitted to experiment all possibility of germs from the atmosphere being introduced, as by passing the air which is to support the life of the animalcule through tubes heated to redness and other precautions, no formation of organisms takes place. Some experiments of Mr. Child's, communicated to the Royal Society during the last year, again throw doubt on the negative results obtained by M. Pasteur; so that the question may be not finally determined, but the balance of experiment and opinion is against spontaneous generation.

One argument presented by M. Pasteur is well worthy of remark, viz., that in proportion as our means of scrutiny become more searching, heterogeneity, or the development of organisms without generation from parents of similar organism, has been gradually driven from higher to lower forms of life, so that if some apparent exceptions still exist they are of the lowest and simplest forms; and these exceptions may probably be removed, as M. Pasteur considers he has removed them, by a more searching investigation.

If it be otherwise, if heterogeneity obtains at all, all will now admit that at present the result of the most careful experiments shows it to be confined to the most simple organic structures, such as vibrions and bacteria, and that all the progressive and more highly developed forms are, as far as the most enlarged experience shows, generated by reproduction.

The great difficulty which is met with at the threshold of inquiry into the origin of species, is the definition of species; in fact, species can hardly be defined without begging the question in dispute.

Thus, if species be said to be a perseverance of type incapable of blending itself with other types, or, which comes nearly to the same thing, incapable of producing by union with other types offspring of an intermediate character which can again reproduce, we arrive at this result, that whenever the advocate of continuity shows a blending of what had been hitherto deemed separate species, the answer is, they were considered separate species by mistake, they do not now come under the definition of species, because they interbreed.

The line of demarcation is thus *ex hypothesi* removed step further, and thus, unless the advocate of continuity can, on his side, prove the whole question in dispute, by showing that all can directly or by intermediate varieties reproduce, he is defeated by the definition itself of species.

On the other hand, if this, or something in fact amounting to it, be not the definition of species—if it be admitted that distinct species can, under certain favourable conditions, produce intermediate offspring capable of reproduction, then continuity in some mode or other is admitted.

The question then takes this form:—Are there species or are there not? Is the word to be used as signifying a real, natural distinction, or as a mere convenient designation applied to subdivisions having a permanence which will probably outlive man's discussions on the subject, but not an absolute fixity? The same question, in a wider sense, and taking into consideration a much longer time, would be applicable to genera and families.

Actual experiment has done little to elucidate the question, nor, unless we can suppose the experiments continued through countless generations, is it likely to contribute much to its solution. We must, therefore, have recourse to the enlarged experience or induction from the facts of geology, paleontology and physiology, aided by analogy from the laws of action which Nature evidences in other departments.

The doctrine of gradual succession is hardly yet formalized; and though there are some high authorities for certain modifications of such view, the preponderance of authority would necessarily be on the other side. Geology and Paleontology are recent sciences, and we cannot tell what the older authors would have thought or written had the more recently discovered facts been presented to their view. Authority, therefore, does not much help us on this question.

Geological discoveries seemed, in the early period of the science, to show complete extinction of certain species and the appearance of new ones, great gaps existing between the characteristics of the extinct and the new species. As science advanced, these were more or less filled up; the apparent difficulty of admitting unlimited modification of species would seem to have arisen from the comparison of the extreme ends of the scale, where the intermediate links or some of them were wanting.

To suppose a Zoophyte the progenitor of a Mammal, or to suppose at some particular period of time a highly-developed animal to have come out of nothing, or suddenly grown out of inorganic matter, would appear at first sight equally extravagant hypotheses. As an effort of Almighty creative power, neither of these alternatives presents more difficulty than the other; but as we have no means of ascertaining how creative power worked but by an examination and study of the works themselves, we are not likely to get either side proved to ocular demonstration. A single phase in the progress of transmutation would probably require a term far transcending all that embraced by historical records; and, on the other hand, it might be said, sudden creations, though taking place frequently, if viewed with reference to the immensity of time involved in geological periods, may be so rare with reference to our experience, and so difficult of clear authentication, that the non-observation of such instances cannot be regarded as absolute disproof of their possible occurrence.

The more the gaps between species are filled up by the discovery of intermediate varieties, the stronger becomes the argument for transmutation and the weaker that for successive creations, because the former view then becomes more and more consistent with experience, the latter more discordant from it. As undoubted cases of variation, more or less permanent, from given characteristics, are produced by the effects of climate, food, domestication, &c., the more species are increased by intercalation, the more the distinctions slide down towards those which are within the limits of such observed deviations; while, on the other hand, to suppose the more and more frequent recurrence of fresh creations out of amorphous matter, is a multiplication of miracles or special interventions, not in accordance with what we see of the uniform and gradual progress of nature, either in the organic or inorganic world. If we were entitled to conclude that the progress of discovery would continue in the same course, and that species would become indefinitely multiplied, the distinctions would become infinitely minute, and all lines of demarcation would cease, the polygon would become a circle, the succession of points a line. Certain it is that the more we observe, the more we increase the subdivision of species, and consequently the number of these supposed creations; so that new creations become innumerable, and yet of these we have no one well-authenticated instance, and in no other observed operation of Nature have we seen this want of continuity, these frequent *per saltum* deviations from uniformity, each of which is a miracle.

The difficulty of producing intermediate offspring from what are termed distinct species and the infecundity in many instances of hybrids are used as strong arguments against continuity of succession; on the other hand, it may be said long-continued variation through countless generations has given rise to such differences of physical character, that reproduction is difficult in some cases and in others impossible.

Suppose, for instance, M to represent a parent-race whose offspring by successive changes through eons of time have diverged, and produced on the one hand a species A, and on the other a species Z, the changes here have been so great that we should never expect directly to reproduce an intermediate between A and Z. A and B on the one hand, and Y and Z on the other, might reproduce; but to regain the original type M, we must not only retrocede through all the intermediates, but must have similar circumstances recalled in an inverse order at each phase of retrogression, conditions which it is obviously impossible to fulfil. But though among the higher forms of organic structure we cannot retrace the effects of time and reproduce intermediate types, yet among some of the lower forms we find it difficult to assign any line of specific demarcation; thus, as one result of the very elaborate and careful investigations of Dr. Carpenter on Foraminifera, he states, "It has been shown that a very wide range of variation exists among Orbitolites, not merely as regards external form, but also as to plan of development; and not merely as to the shape and aspect of the entire organism, but also with respect to the size and configuration of its component parts. It would have been easy, by selecting only the most divergent types from amongst the whole series of specimens which I have examined, to prefer an apparently substantial claim on behalf of these to be accounted as so many distinct species. But after having classified the specimens which could be arranged around these types, a large proportion would yet have remained, either presenting characters intermediate between those of two or more of them, or actually combining those characters in different parts of their fabric; thus showing that no lines of demarcation can be drawn across any part of the series that shall definitely separate it into any number of groups, each characterized by features entirely peculiar to itself."

At the conclusion of his inquiry he states:—

I. The range of variation is so great among Foraminifera as to include not merely the differential characters which systematists, proceeding upon the ordinary methods have accounted specific, but

also those upon which the greater part of the genera of this group have been founded, and even in some instances those of its orders.

II. The ordinary notion of species as assemblages of individuals marked out from each other by definite characters that have been genetically transmitted from original prototypes similarly distinguished, is quite inapplicable to this group; since even if the limits of such assemblages were extended so as to include what elsewhere would be accounted genera, they would still be found so intimately connected by gradational links, that definite lines could not be drawn between them.

III. The only natural classification of the vast aggregate of diversified forms which this group contains will be one which ranges them according to their direction and degree of divergence from a small number of principal family types; and any subordinate grouping of genera and species which may be adopted for the convenience of description and nomenclature must be regarded merely as assemblages of forms characterized by the nature and degree of the modifications of the original type, which they may have respectively acquired in the course of genetic descent from a common ancestry.

IV. Even in regard to these family types it may fairly be questioned whether analogical evidence does not rather favour the idea of their derivation from a common original than that of their primitive distinctness.

Mr. H. Bates, when investigating "the Lepidoptera of the Amazon Valley," may almost be said to have witnessed the origin of some species of butterflies, so close have been his observations on the habits of these animals that have led to their variation and segregation, so closely do the results follow his observations, and so great is the impossibility of otherwise accounting for any of the observed facts.

In the numerous localities of the Amazon region certain gregarious species of butterfly (Heliconiidae) swarm in incredible numbers, almost outnumbering all the other butterflies in the neighbourhood; the species in the different localities being different, though often to be distinguished by a very slight shade.

In these swarms are to be found, in small numbers, other species of butterflies belonging to as many as ten different genera, and even some moths; and these intruders, though they structurally differ *in toto* from the swarms they mingle with, and from one another, mimic the Heliconiidae so closely in colours, habits, mode of flight, &c., that it is almost impossible to distinguish the intruders from those they mingle with. The obvious benefit of this mimicry is safety, the intruders hence escaping detection by predatory animals.

Mr. Bates has extended his observations to the habits of life, food, variations, and geographical range of the species concerned in these mimetic phenomena, and finds in every case corroborative evidence of every variety and species being derivative, the species being modified from place to place to suit the peculiar form of Heliconiidae stationed there.

Mr. Müller has done similar service to the derivative theory by his observations and writings on the Butterflies and Birds of the Malay Archipelago, adducing instances of mimetic resemblances strictly analogous to the above; and adding in further illustration a beautiful series of instances where the form of the wing of the same butterfly is so modified in various islets, as to produce changes in their mode of flight that tend to the conservation of the variety by aiding its escape when chased by birds or predaceous insects.

He has also adduced a multitude of examples of geographical and representative species, races, and varieties, forming so graduated a series as to render it obvious that they have had a common origin.

The effects of food in the formation and segregation of races and of certain groups of insects has been admirably demonstrated by Mr. B. D. Walsh, of North America.

Mr. M'Donnell has been led to the discovery of a new organ in electric fishes from the application of the theory of descent, and Dr. Fritz Müller

has published numerous observations showing that organs of very different structure may, through the operation of natural selection, acquire very similar and even identical functions. Sir John Lubbock's diving hymenopterous insect affords a remarkable illustration of analogous phenomena; it dives by the aid of its wings, and is the only insect of the vast order it belongs to that is at all aquatic.

The discovery of the Eozoon is of the highest importance in reference to the derivative hypothesis, occurring as it does in strata that were formed at a period inconceivably antecedent to the pre-supposed introduction of life upon the globe, and displacing the argument derived from the supposition that at the dawn of life a multitude of beings of high organization were simultaneously developed (in the Silurian and Cambrian strata).

Prof. A. de Candolle, one of the most distinguished continental botanists, has, to some extent, abandoned the tenets held in his 'Géographie Botanique,' and favours the derivative hypothesis in his paper on the variation of oaks; following up a paper by Dr. Hooker, on the oaks of Palestine, showing that some sixteen of them are derivative, he avows his belief that two-thirds of the 300 species of this genus, which he himself describes, are provisional only.

Dr. Hooker, who had only partially accepted the derivative hypothesis propounded before the publication of 'The Origin of Species through Natural Selection,' at the same time declining the doctrine of special creation, has since then cordially adopted the former, and illustrated its principles by applying them to the solution of various botanical questions: first, in reference to the Flora of Australia, the anomalies of which he appears to explain satisfactorily by the application of these principles; and, latterly, in reference to the Arctic Flora.

In the case of the Arctic Flora, he believes that originally Scandinavian types were spread over the high northern latitudes, that these were driven southwards during the glacial period, when many of them changed their forms in the struggle that ensued with the displaced temperate plants; that on the returning warmth, the Scandinavian plants, whether changed or not, were driven again northwards and up to the mountains of the temperate latitudes, followed, in both cases, by series of pre-existing plants of the temperate Alps. The result is the present mixed Arctic Flora, consisting of a basis of more or less changed and unchanged Scandinavian plants, associated in each longitude with representatives of the mountain Flora of the more temperate regions to the south of them.

The publication of a previously totally unknown Flora, that of the Alps of tropical Africa, by Dr. Hooker, has afforded a multitude of facts that have been applied in confirmation of the derivative hypothesis. This Flora is found to have relationships with those of temperate Europe and North Africa, of the Cape of Good Hope, and of the mountains of tropical Madagascar and Abyssinia, that can be accounted for on no other hypothesis, but that there has been ancient climatal connexion, and some coincident or subsequent slight changes of specific character.

The doctrine of Cuvier, every day more and more borne out by observation, that each organ bears a definite relation to the whole of the individual, seems to support the view of indefinite variation. If an animal seeks its food or safety by climbing trees, its claws will become more prehensile, the muscles which act upon those claws must become more developed, the body will become agile by the very exercise which is necessary to it, and each portion of the frame will mould itself to the wants of the animal by the effect on it of the habits of the animal.

Another series of facts which present an argument in favour of gradual succession are the phases of resemblance to inferior orders which the embryo passes through in its development, and the relationship shown in what is termed the metamorphosis of plants; facts difficult to account for on the theory of frequent separate creations, but almost inevitable on that of gradual succession. So, also, the existence of rudimentary and effete organs,

which must either be referred to a *lensus nature* or to some mode of continuous succession.

The doctrine of typical nuclei seems only a mode of evading the difficulty; experience does not give us the types of theory, and, after all, what are these types? It must be admitted there are none such in reality; how are we led to the theory of them? simply by a process of abstraction from classified existences. Having grouped from natural similitudes certain natural forms into a class, we select attributes common to each member of the class, and call the assemblage of such attributes a type of the class. This process gives us an abstract idea, and we then transfer this idea to the Creator, and make Him start with that which our own imperfect generalization has derived. It seems to me that the doctrine of types is, in fact, a concession to the theory of continuity or indefinite variability; for the admission that large groups have common characters shows, necessarily, a blending of forms within the scope of the group, which supports the view of each member being derived from some other member of it: can it be asserted that the assigned limits of such groups have a definite line of demarcation?

The condition of the earth's surface, or, at least, of large portions of it, has for long periods remained substantially the same; this would involve a greater degree of fixity in the organisms which have existed during such periods of little change than in those which have come into being during periods of more rapid transition; for, though rejecting catastrophes as the general *modus agendi* of Nature, I am far from saying that the march of physical changes has been always perfectly uniform.

There have been doubtless what may be termed secular seasons, and there have been local changes of varying degrees of extent and permanence; from such causes organized beings would be more concentrated in certain directions than in others, the fixity of character being in the ratio of the fixity of condition. This would throw natural forms into certain groups which would be more prominent than others, like the colours of the rainbow, which present certain predominant tints, though they merge into each other by insensible gradations.

While the evidence seems daily becoming stronger in favour of a derivative hypothesis as applied to the succession of organic beings, we are far removed from anything like a sufficient number of facts to show that, at all events within the existing geological periods capable of being investigated, there has been any great progression from a simpler or more embryonic to a more complex type.

Prof. Huxley, though inclined to the derivative hypothesis, shows, in the concluding portion of his address to the Geological Society, 1862, a great number of cases in which, though there is abundant evidence of variation, there is none of progression. There are, however, several groups of Vertebrata in which the endoskeleton of the older presents a less ossified condition than that of the younger genera. He cites the Devonian Ganoids, the Mesozoic Lepidosteidae, the Paleozoic Sharks, and the more ancient Crocodilia and Lacertilia, and particularly the Pycnodonts and Labirinthodonts, as instances of this when compared with their more recent representatives.

The records of life on the globe may have been destroyed by the fusion of the rocks, which would otherwise have preserved them, or by crystallization after hydrothermal action. The earlier forms may have existed at a period when this planet was in course of formation, or being segregated or detached from other worlds or systems. We have not evidence enough to speculate on the subject, but by time and patience we may acquire it.

Were all the forms which have existed embalmed in rock, the question would be solved; but what a small proportion of extinct forms is so preserved, and must be, if we consider the circumstances necessary to fossilize organic remains. On the dry land, unwashed by rivers and seas, when an animal or plant dies, it undergoes chemical decomposition which changes its form; it is consumed by insects, its skeleton is oxidized and crumbles into dust. Of the myriads of animals and vegetables which annually perish, we find hardly an instance of a relic so preserved as to be likely to become a per-

manent fossil. So, again, in the deeper parts of the oceans, or of the larger lakes, the few fish there are perish and their remains sink to the bottom, and are there frequently consumed by other marine or lacustrine organisms, or chemically decomposed. As a general rule, it is only when the remains are silted up by marine, fluviatile, or lacustrine sediments that the remains are preserved. Geology, therefore, might be expected to keep for us such organic remains only as were likely to inhabit deltas or the margins of seas, lakes, or rivers; here and there an exception may occur, but the mass of preserved relics would be those of creatures so situated: and so we find it, the bulk of fossil remains consists of fish and amphibia, shell-fish form the major part of the geological museum, limestone and chalk rocks frequently consisting of little else than a congeries of fossil shells. Plants of reed or rush-like character, fish which are capable of inhabiting shallow waters, and saurian animals form another large portion of geological remains.

Compare the shell-fish and amphibia of existing organisms with the other forms, and what a small proportion they supply; compare the shell-fish and amphibia of Paleontology with the other forms, and what an overwhelming majority they yield!

There is nothing, as Prof. Huxley has remarked, like an extinct order of Birds or Mammals, only a few isolated instances. It may be said, the ancient world possessed a larger proportion of fish and amphibia, and was more suited to their existence. I see no reason for believing this, at least to anything like the extent contended for; the Fauna and Flora now in course of being preserved for future ages would give the same idea to our successors.

Crowded as Europe is with cattle, birds, insects, &c., how few are geologically preserved! while the muddy or sandy margins of the ocean, the estuaries, and deltas are yearly accumulating numerous crustacea and molluscs, with some fishes and reptiles, for the study of future paleontologists.

If this position be right, then, notwithstanding the immense number of preserved fossils, there must have lived an immeasurably larger number of unpreserved organic beings, so that the chance of filling up the missing links, except in occasional instances, is very slight. Yet where circumstances have remained suitable for their preservation, many closely-connected species are preserved—in other words, while the intermediate types in certain cases are lost, in others they exist. The opponents of continuity lay all stress on the lost and none on the existing links.

But there is another difficulty in the way of tracing a given organism to its parent form, which, from our conventional mode of tracing genealogies, is never looked upon in its proper light.

Where are we to look for the remote ancestor of a given form? Each of us, supposing none of our progenitors had to intermarry with relatives, would have had at or about the period of the Norman Conquest upwards of a hundred million direct ancestors of that generation, and if we add the intermediate ancestors, double that number. As each individual has a male and female parent, we have only to multiply by two for each thirty years, the average duration of a generation, and it will give the above result.

Let any one assume that one of his ancestors at the time of the Norman Conquest was a Moor, another a Celt, and a third a Laplander, and that these three were preserved while all the others were lost, he would never recognize either of them as his ancestor; he would only have the one-hundred-millionth of the blood of each of them, and as far as they were concerned there would be no perceptible sign of identity of race.

But the problem is more complex than that which I have stated. At the time of the Conquest there were hardly a hundred million people in Europe; it follows that a great number of the ancestors of the *propositus* must have intermarried with relations, and then the pedigree, going back to the time of the Conquest, instead of being represented by diverging lines, would form a network so tangled that no skill could unravel it; the law of probabilities would indicate that any two people in the same country, taken at hazard, would not have many generations to go back before they

would find a common ancestor, who probably, could they have seen him or her in the life, had no traceable resemblance to either of them. Thus two animals of a very different form, and of what would be termed very different species, might have a common geological ancestor, and yet the skill of no comparative anatomist could trace the descent.

From the long-continued conventional habit of tracing pedigrees through the male ancestor, we forget in talking of progenitors that each individual has a mother as well as a father, and there is no reason to suppose that he had in him less of the blood of the one than of the other.

The recent discoveries in paleontology show us that Man existed on this planet at an epoch far anterior to that commonly assigned to him. The instruments connected with human remains, and indisputably the work of human hands, show that to these remote periods the term civilization could hardly be applied—chipped flints of the rudest construction, probably, in the earlier cases, fabricated by holding an amorphous flint in the hand, and chipping off portions of it by striking it against a larger stone or rock; then, as time suggested improvements, it would be more carefully shaped, and another stone used as a tool; then (at what interval we can hardly guess) it would be ground, then roughly polished, and so on,—subsequently bronze weapons, and, nearly the last before we come to historical periods, iron. Such an apparently simple invention as a wheel must, in all probability, have been far subsequent to the rude hunting-tools or weapons of war to which I have alluded.

A little step-by-step reasoning will convince the unprejudiced that what we call civilization must have been a gradual process; can it be supposed that the inhabitants of Central America or of Egypt suddenly and what is called instinctively built their cities, carved and ornamented their monuments? if not, if they must have learnt to construct such erections, did it not take time to acquire such learning, to invent tools as occasion required, contrivances to raise weights, rules or laws by which men acted in concert to effect the design? Did not all this require time? and if, as the evidence of historical times shows, invention marches with geometrical progression, how slow must have been the earlier steps! If even now habit, and prejudice resulting therefrom, vested interests, &c., retard for some time the general application of a new invention, what must have been the degree of retardation among the comparatively uneducated beings which then existed?

I have, of course, been able to indicate only a few of the broad arguments on this most interesting subject; for detailed results the works of Darwin, Hooker, Huxley, Carpenter, Lyell, and others must be examined. If I appear to lean to the view that the successive changes in organic beings do not take place by sudden leaps, it is, I believe, from no want of an impartial feeling; but if the facts are stronger in favour of one theory than another, it would be an affectation of impartiality to make the balance appear equipoised.

The prejudices of education and associations with the past are against this as against all new views; and while on the one hand a theory is not to be accepted because it is new and *prima facie* plausible, still to this assembly I need not say that its running counter to existing opinions is not necessarily a reason for its rejection; the *onus probandi* should rest on those who advance a new view, but the degree of proof must differ with the nature of the subject. The fair question is, Does the newly-proposed view remove more difficulties, require fewer assumptions, and present more consistency with observed facts than that which it seeks to supersede? if so, the philosopher will adopt it, and the world will follow the philosopher—after many days.

It must be borne in mind that even if we are satisfied from a persevering and impartial inquiry that organic forms have varied indefinitely in time, the *causa causans* of these changes is not explained by our researches; if it be admitted that we find no evidence of amorphous matter suddenly changed into complex structure, still why matter should be endowed with the plasticity by which it

slowly acquires modified structure is unexplained. If we assume that natural selection, or the struggle for existence, coupled with the tendency of like to reproduce like, gives rise to various organic changes, still our researches are at present unproductive as to why like should produce like, why acquired characteristics in the parent should be reproduced in the offspring. Reproduction itself is still an enigma, and this great question may involve deeper thoughts than it would be suitable to enter upon now.

Perhaps the most convincing argument in favour of continuity which could be presented to a doubting mind would be the difficulty it would feel in representing to itself any *per se* act of Nature. Who would not be astonished at beholding an oak-tree spring up in a day, and not from seed or shoot? We are forced by experience, though often unconsciously, to believe in continuity as to all effects now taking place; if any one of them be anomalous, we endeavour, by tracing its history and concomitant circumstances, to find its cause, i.e. to relate it to antecedent phenomena; are we then to reject similar inquiries as to the past? Is it laudable to seek an explanation of present changes by observation, experiment, and analogy, and yet reprehensible to apply the same mode of investigation to the past history of the earth and of the organic remains embalmed in it?

If we disbelieve in sudden creations of matter or force, in the sudden formations of complex organisms now, if we now assign to the heat of the sun an action enabling vegetables to live by assimilating gases and amorphous earths into growing structures, why should such effects not have taken place in earlier periods of the world's history, when the sun shone as now, and when the same materials existed for his rays to fall upon?

If we are satisfied that continuity is a law of nature, the true expression of the action of Almighty power, then, though we may humbly confess our inability to explain why matter is impressed with this gradual tendency to structural formation, we should cease to look for special interventions of creative power in changes which are difficult to understand, because, being removed from us in time, their concomitants are lost; we should endeavour from the relics to evoke their history, and when we find a gap not try to bridge it over with a miracle.

If it be true that continuity pervades all physical phenomena, the doctrine applied by Cuvier to the relations of the different parts of an animal to each other might be capable of great extension. All the phenomena of inorganic and organized matter might be expected to be so inter-related that the study of an isolated phenomenon would lead to a knowledge of numerous other phenomena with which it is connected. As the antiquary deduces from a monolith the tools, the arts, the habits, and epoch of those by whom it is wrought, so the student of science may deduce from a spark of electricity or a ray of light the source whence it is generated; and by similar processes of reasoning other phenomena hitherto unknown may be deduced from their probable relation with the known. But, as with heat, light, magnetism, and electricity, though we may study the phenomena to which these names have been given, and their mutual relations, we know nothing of what they are; so, whether we adopt the view of natural selection, of effort, of plasticity, &c., we know not why organisms should have this *nusus formative*, or why the acquired habit or exceptional quality of the individual should reappear in the offspring.

Philosophy ought to have no likes or dislikes, truth is her only aim; but if a glow of admiration be permitted to a physical inquirer, to my mind a far more exquisite sense of the beautiful is conveyed by the orderly development, by the necessary inter-relation and inter-action of each element of the Cosmos, and by the conviction that a bullet falling to the ground changes the dynamical conditions of the universe, than can be conveyed by mysteries, by convulsions, or by cataclysms.

The sense of understanding is to the educated more gratifying than the love of the marvellous, though the latter need never be wanting to the nature-seeker.

But the doctrine of continuity is not solely applicable to physical inquiries.

The same modes of thought which lead us to see continuity in the field of the microscope as in the universe, in infinity downwards as in infinity upwards, will lead us to see it in the history of our race; the revolutionary ideas of the so-called natural rights of man, and *a priori* reasoning from what are termed first principles, are far more unsound and give us far less ground for improvement of the race than the study of the gradual progressive changes arising from changed circumstances, changed wants, changed habits. Our language, our social institutions, our laws, the constitution of which we are proud, are the growth of time, the product of slow adaptations, resulting from continuous struggles. Happily in this country, though our philosophical writers do not always recognize it, practical experience has taught us to improve rather than to re-model; we follow the law of nature and avoid cataclysms.

The superiority of Man over other animals inhabiting this planet, of civilized over savage man, and of the more civilized over the less civilized, is proportioned to the extent which his thought can grasp of the past and of the future. His memory reaches further back, his capability of prediction reaches further forward in proportion as his knowledge increases. He has not only personal memory which brings to his mind at will the events of his individual life—he has history, the memory of the race; he has geology, the history of the planet; he has astronomy, the geology of other worlds. Whence does the conviction to which I have alluded, that each material form bears in itself the records of its past history, arise? Is it not from the belief in continuity? Does not the worn hollow on the rock record the action of the tide, its stratified layers the slow deposition by which it was formed, the organic remains imbedded in it the beings living at the times these layers were deposited, so that from a fragment of stone we can get the history of a period myriads of years ago? From a fragment of bronze we may get the history of our race at a period antecedent to tradition. As science advances our power of reading this history improves and is extended. Saturn's ring may help us to a knowledge of how our solar system developed itself, for it as surely contains that history as the rock contains the record of its own formation.

By this patient investigation how much have we already learnt, which the most civilized of ancient human races ignored! While in ethics, in politics, in poetry, in sculpture, in painting, we have scarcely, if at all, advanced beyond the highest intellects of ancient Greece or Italy, how great are the steps we have made in physical science and its applications!

But how much more may we not expect to know?

We, this evening assembled, *Ephemera* as we are, have learnt by transmitted labour, to weigh, as in a balance, other worlds larger and heavier than our own, to know the length of their days and years, to measure their enormous distance from us and from each other, to detect and accurately ascertain the influence they have on the movements of our world and on each other, and to discover the substances of which they are composed; may we not fairly hope that similar methods of research to those which have taught us so much may give our race further information, until problems relating not only to remote worlds, but possibly to organic and sentient beings which may inhabit them, problems which it might now seem wildly visionary to enunciate, may be solved by progressive improvements in the modes of applying observation and experiment, induction and deduction?

SAMUEL MAYNARD.

The above well-known mathematical bookseller recently died in the Booksellers' Retreat, at Abbott's Langley, in his seventy-seventh year. He was self-taught. At twenty years of age he came from Taunton to London and opened a school in Clarendon Square, Somers Town, in which he was successful for some years. He then opened a small shop, in Crown Court, Fleet Street, for the sale of

mathematical books; from whence he removed to Earl's Court, Leicester Square, where he carried on business for thirty years. In his old age he was glad to accept an asylum as above, in 1862, where he remained until his death. All who had anything to do with mathematics knew the little booth in Earl's Court, crowded with old and dusty books, and the man who seemed to know all the English part of his stock. Mr. Maynard was a competent mathematician, and edited, for booksellers, various works on the lower branches. His particular study was the almanack and its construction: on this point he has left a very elaborate manuscript, which is at present at the apartments of the Astronomical Society. Mr. Maynard carried on his business on the plan of high prices and slow returns: this is not the way to thrive in our day. But it was not altogether on commercial principles that he acted. He was, by his knowledge of the intellectual value of his store, a little bit of a bibliophile: we have reason to think he had this feeling to an extent he knew nothing of himself. When his books came to be sold by auction at his retirement—1,200 lots, most of them packages, for so the auctioneers sell miscellaneous shop-stock—many books turned up which, to our knowledge, he had been asked for, and did not produce. Some of them, we have no doubt, were reserved, not for private use, but to enjoy the feeling of possession. Maynard published fourteen catalogues: they are well known by the title-pages, which have, between the binomial theorem above and Taylor's theorem below, Euclid I. 47, with his name, address, and business worked into the diagram, supported on one side by the cone, sphere, and cylinder of Archimedes, and on the other by the Copernican system shining through clouds. He was an upright and simple-minded man. The mathematicians make no more pilgrimages to 8, Earl's Court. They miss the shop to which all their rare books came at last: and they miss their old friend, whom they used to interrupt when deep in the construction of a catalogue, and the consultation about the abbreviation of a word, or the meaning of a title.—We may add to the above a record of the passing away of two other persons known to book purchasers or authors; viz., Mr. Sotheran, advanced in years and honours; and Mr. George Vertue, in the midst of a promising career.

LITERARY RESEARCH IN SPAIN.

76, Chester Square, August 20, 1866.

Not long since it was reported in Madrid that Señor de la Barrera intends to offer a sequel of his former work to the forthcoming competition for the annual prize at the National Library. The aim of the award, it should be mentioned, is to encourage bibliographical studies. The productions judged to possess the requisite degree of merit are honoured with a moderate premium in money, and afterwards printed at the expense of the State. This reward was deservedly gained by Don Cayetano at the competition of 1860, when he produced the 'Catálogo Bibliográfico y Biográfico del Teatro antiguo Español,'—a large and substantial performance, the labour of years on a subject of extreme difficulty, presenting for the first time a comprehensive survey of a field rich in literary interest, and too long neglected. To pursue such a task through the decay of two centuries, among which the desired notices had to be sought with pain from obscure and miscellaneous sources, was an undertaking the difficulty of which those only who have studied the national drama of Spain can appreciate. Señor de la Barrera may be praised as having succeeded, in spite of such obstacles, in producing on this subject a manual of remarkable importance, surprisingly complete and accurate, all things considered; but in collecting and arranging such a mass of scattered details, comprising the lives and works of some hundreds of authors, errors and omissions were all but inevitable. The supplement, now completed, it is said will rectify in several particulars the earlier work, and enrich it with considerable additions. Among the latter is one important enough to form a work by itself,—an entirely new biography, namely, of Lope de Vega, founded on documents hitherto unknown; and especially on a precious series of the poet's

autograph letters, extending over his most brilliant period, which have but lately been brought to light from the archive of the Conde de Altamira. The value of such a treasure-trove can hardly be overrated. Until now the personal history of this remarkable man has been a mere blank; the few details current respecting him being of little importance, and too often of doubtful authority. The interest of continuous illustrations from his own hand may, therefore, be conceived.

With no little surprise, however, I have heard it rumoured that the reception and publicity of this notable discovery are threatened with opposition, ostensibly, it may be, on some point of form, but in reality on religious grounds! It is whispered that the letters in question will reveal the fact that Lope, even after he had assumed the tonsure, (whether in 1609 or somewhat later is not yet determined) did not at once and altogether take leave of secular frailties; and it seems that certain censors, in the ultra-Catholic sense, now prevalent at Court, opine that any reflexion on the impeccability of the priesthood, from so illustrious an instance, would be a scandal quite unfit to be divulged. This assumption is almost too absurd to be credible. —Note, that Lope then was, and for more than twenty years afterwards continued to be, monarch of the popular stage; to which, after his consecration, he gave upwards of *one thousand plays*; of which, it may safely be asserted, on the evidence of a number that have been preserved, more than two-thirds had love for their ruling theme, and the rest, however serious the subject, were never without a large infusion of the same element. It is in presence of this notorious fact that the *scandal* in question is deprecated. A far worse scandal would be the success of an attempt, in this nineteenth century, to stifle any better knowledge of the most singular phenomenon of its kind that the world has ever seen, on pretences fit only for a Capuchin of the Dark Ages. Can the parties concerned be blind to the fact that all educated minds throughout Europe, of whatever belief, are in this day agreed that it is imposture only which needs to invoke the suppression of truth? Should this act be done at one of the head-quarters of literature in Madrid, it would be a lamentable proof that Spain, instead of advancing in civilization, is now sinking below the position she held in the last century, under Charles the Third. It may be hoped, however, that a report so injurious to the credit of the nation may turn out to be itself a mere piece of scandalous gossip.

J. R. CHORLEY.

OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

ON Monday next the Gardens of the Royal Horticultural Society will be opened to the public free, in commemoration of the birthday of the late Prince Consort.

As between poet and publishers, it is but an act of justice to state that the withdrawal from circulation of Mr. Swinburne's 'Poems and Ballads' was entirely the act of Messrs. Moxon & Co.

Dr. Russell, the well-known correspondent of the *Times*, enters the ranks of novelists with a work entitled 'Dr. Brady.'

The Tenth Congress of the Association for the Promotion of Social Science (with which is united the Society for Promoting the Amendment of the Law) will be held in Manchester from the 3rd to the 10th of October, under the presidency of Lord Shaftesbury. The question of International Copyright is to be discussed, in its application to books, dramatic and musical compositions, the reproduction of works of art by engraving, photography, or otherwise, and the designs of manufacture.

A curious error has been circulating in the papers touching the artist who executed the cenotaph in memory of the Princess Charlotte of Wales, in St. George's Chapel, Windsor. It is attributed to Mr. R. J. Wyatt, the sculptor, of Rome. The artist who executed the cenotaph was Mr. Matthew C. Wyatt, of Paddington, and he was at least more successful in that sensational work than in his equestrian statue of the Duke of Wellington, which humiliates humanity and horseflesh

from its "coign of vantage" at the top of Grosvenor Place.

"Oriental Mysteries" are not often amusing nor easily developed, but under that title the Stereoscopic Company has published a mystery (if a mystery remain so after publication) which puzzles sages, and amuses all the world. As for explaining it, how can we venture to attempt to unravel what defies the scientific world?

With reference to 'Sketches of Russian Life,' before and after the Emancipation of the Serfs, and our doubt whether the personal anecdotes are to be taken as literal records, a Correspondent (E. C.) says: "I distinctly recollect reading the two anecdotes you quote, in *Chamber's Journal* of about eighteen years ago. I have not the numbers with me to refer to, but am quite certain as to the fact." The same journal has been drawn upon by various other original writers.

We have received the following communication:

"Christ Church, Jerusalem, Aug. 3, 1866.

"After reading Mr. Mill's letter of the 7th of July, I saw Priest Amram, and noted down from him the following statements:—1. That H.R.H. the Prince of Wales did see the most ancient roll of the Samaritans. 2. That the portion of it photographed by Mr. Bedford was written, and added to fill a decayed place, about sixteen centuries ago. 3. That he (Amram) would only undertake to affirm positively that the book Deuteronomy (excepting a gap, now patched with paper, before the record of the Law) is in the handwriting of Abishua. 4. That the Tarikh (Deut. vi. 10, &c.) runs as follows:—'I, Abishua—son of Phinehas, son of Eleazar, son of Aaron, the priests, to them be honour from Jehovah and His Will—wrote this Holy Book in the door of the Tabernacle, on Mount Gerizzim, in the year thirteen in the reign of the Children of Israel in the land of Canaan, with its boundaries. Praise Jehovah.' 5. This roll is exhibited at the seven feasts each year. 6. In conducting service, reading from a roll, reading from a quarto, and repeating from memory, are considered modes equally sacred. 7. Lieut. Anderson was not permitted to photograph the 'Abishua MSS.' One of the three rolls usually shown to visitors was opened to him for that purpose. 8. The Samaritans assert that when Ezra changed the letters, he also partially altered the matter of the Pentateuch. 9. In their chronology stands the entry, 'that in the year 4281 from Adam, and in the nineteenth year of the priesthood of Jehoakim, Jesus, the son of Mary, was crucified in Cursed Salem' (Arusalem). 10. The relationship between Jews and Samaritans remains pretty much as of old. Yours, &c.,

"JOSEPH BARCLAY."

The Irish National Picture Gallery in Dublin is making most favourable progress. The collection has been made at an outlay of 10,000*l.*, of which sum 6,000*l.* has been raised by local subscriptions. This is creditable alike to Irish taste, wisdom, and liberality. The *Dublin Evening Mail*, in reference to the fact that, according to the Civil Service Estimates, 1,000*l.* will be voted for pictures when local subscription has already supplied the same amount, suggests that, if for every thousand subscribed another thousand will be added by Government, there remains the sum of 5,000*l.* due to the Irish Gallery, which has already received an instalment amounting to a fifth of that handsome total.

There is no end of queer mistakes. A few weeks ago we asked for the derivation of *salad*. A correspondent of *Notes and Queries* says that in the passage in which we ask this we repeat, inadvertently he supposes, almost verbatim, Cade's interesting soliloquy in the garden of the Kentish Squire. We cannot afford space to reprint: but if any reader will compare our paragraph (*ante*, p. 107) with the soliloquy in 'Henry the Sixth,' part II. act iv. scene 10, we think he will be amused. Not verbatim, we should say; only *herbætum*: for Cade mentions two kinds of salad, and so do we. But we had quite forgotten even this resemblance; and there is a great difference even here: for Cade puns, as became a runaway traitor; and we philologized, as became grave journalists.

According to the Report of the Commissioners of Patents, it appears that in 1865 there were 3,386 applications for patents; of these, 2,186 passed the great seal. Seventy per cent. of the latter became void by non-payment of the 50*l.* stamp then payable, and ninety per cent. of the remainder became void at the end of the seventh year by non-payment of the 100*l.* stamp, the amount then required to secure the patent for a second term of seven years. The receipts of the office during the above year were 115,340*l.* Of this sum, the Attorney and Solicitor General and their clerks received 10,118*l.*; 4,554*l.* was given for compensation, and 32,154*l.* was spent in general expenditure. After sundry other deductions, a surplus remained of 47,324*l.* The Commissioners are of opinion that the fees are not too high, as their effect is to stop the application for useless and too speculative patents. They further recommend that the surplus should be applied to the purchase of large offices and the establishment of a museum; and they consider that Fife House and the adjoining gardens would be admirably adapted for these purposes.

At a recent meeting of the Paris Academy of Sciences the Atlantic Telegraph Cable formed the subject of a prolonged discussion. M. Babinet was of opinion that although the Cable is admirably made, it will not remain long in efficient working order, and recommended that immediate steps should be taken to determine by its means the exact longitude of the American station at Newfoundland.

In the course of his recent explorations in Brazil, Capt. Burton discovered on the south bank of the Parahiba river, between San Pablo and Orio, a deposit of pizano or hard clay, bituminous shale, overlying a true coal-measure, containing petroleum, and also beds of limestone and ironstone.

After a delay of four years, the Royal Society of Victoria have published another volume, the sixth, of their *Transactions and Proceedings*, comprising the years 1861 to 1864 inclusive. This volume contains, besides the President's addresses, forty papers under the head of Transactions, chiefly on the botany, geology and natural history of the colony. Among other subjects we find 'Suggestions for the Formation of a Colonial Navy,' 'Determination of Personal Equation in Astronomical Observing,' 'Description of a Pendulum Apparatus for determining the Length of a Seconds Pendulum in Melbourne,' 'Notes on the Coast and Lakes of Gipps Land,' 'Water Supply and Irrigation,' 'Surface and Underground Drainage of Melbourne,' 'Determination of the Sun's Distance,' and 'Tidal Phenomena of Hobson's Bay.' After reading such a meritorious catalogue of scientific and useful researches, we can but wish success to the Royal Society of Victoria; may their future be as beneficial to science as that of the Royal Society of London!

The topographical and antiquarian library of the late Rev. J. M. Greasley has been sold during the past week by Messrs. Sotheby, Wilkinson & Hodge. The following are the most noteworthy: Memorials of the Bagot Family, compiled in 1823, with plates and pedigrees, privately printed, 16*l.*—Carlisle's Collections for a History of the Ancient Family of Carlisle, privately printed, 9*l.*—Collections for a History of the Ancient Family of Bland, privately printed, 3*l.* 10*s.*—Annals of the Shirley Family, privately printed, 11*l.* 5*s.*—Dibdin's Bibliographical Decameron, 11*l.* 10*s.*—Dibdin's Tour, 9*l.*—Appeal Cases, 1727-35, 11*l.* 15*s.*—Baker's History of Northampton, 12*l.* 5*s.*—Book of St. Alban's, the reprint, 10*l.*—Eaton's Antiquities of Shropshire, in parts, 16*l.* 10*s.*—Duncumb's History of Hereford, 4*l.* 10*s.*—Catalogue of the Library of Mr. Eaton, large paper, 2*l.* 6*s.*—Hasleng's Speech in Parliament in 1641, and letter concerning the recovery of Tintmouth Castle, in which action Col. Lilburn was slain, 8*l.* 5*s.*—Dugdale's Monasticon, by Caley, Ellis and Bandinel, 2*l.*—Holinshed's Chronicles, first edition, 16*l.*—Nichols's History and Antiquities of the County of Leicester, 4 vols. in 9, uncut, 12*l.* 3*s.*, being the largest sum this book ever fetched.—Manuscript Notes to this work, compiled by Mr.

Gresley, 88l.—Nash's Warwickshire, 2 vols. 8d. 15s.—Plot's Staffordshire, 3l. 12s.—Thoroton's Nottinghamshire, 4l. 10s.—Turberville's Noble Art of Venere and Hunting, 10z. 10s.—Shaw's Staffordshire, 2 vols., uncut, 25l.—Acts of Parliament relating to this county, 7l. 7s.—Thoroton's Nottinghamshire, wanting the leaf of "Imprimatur," 13l.—Whitaker's History of Leeds, wanting the Appendix, 4l. 6s.—Rubbing of Monumental Brasses, 9l.—Whole-length Portrait of Prince Rupert, probably by Sir Peter Lely, 38l. 10s. A collection of Roman, Greek and English coins has been sold by the same auctioneers during the present week, from which the following may be quoted: A gold coin of Nerva, reverse Liberty, 9l.—Hadrian, with bust in high relief, 4l.—Lucilla, reverse Venus, 4l. 6s.—Commodus, reverse Emperor and Trophy, 4l. 10s.—Severus, reverse Warrior, 6l. 10s.—Alexander, reverse Liberality, 5l. 12s. 6d.—Gordian III., reverse Victory, 4l. 10s.—Pulcheria, reverse Victory, 4l. 12s.—Johannes, reverse Emperor, 4l. 12s.—Agrippa, reverse Head of Augustus, 4l. 14s.—Pescennius Niger, 5l.—Silver coin of Tigranes the Great, 7l. 5s.—Silver coin of Panormus, obverse Palm Tree, 5l. 10s.—Silver coin of Smyrna, with turreted head of Cybèle-Sipylyone, 9l. 9s.—Fenny of Harold II., 6l.—Portcullis half crown of Elizabeth, 5l. 5s.—Portcullis crown of Elizabeth, 7l.—Angelet of Queen Mary, in gold, 9l. 9s.—Rial of Elizabeth, 3l.—In a former sale by the same auctioneers, the following coins are worthy of note, as belonging to the Bactrian Series: Diodotus, with beardless head to the right, 40l.—Agathokles, head of the king with fillet, 29l.—Euthydemus, with youthful bust to the right, 25l.—Demetrius, bust of the king to the right, 25l.

MR. MORBY'S COLLECTION OF MODERN HIGH-CLASS PICTURES.—ON VIEW at the Royal Exchange Fine Arts Galleries, 14, Cornhill. This Collection contains a number of Holman Hunt—J. Phillips, R.A.—T. Faed, R.A.—J. Lewis, R.A.—Egg, R.A.—Frits, R.A.—Rosa Bonheur—Goodall, R.A.—Cooke, R.A.—Creswick, R.A.—Pickering, R.A.—Calderon, R.A.—Sant, A.R.A.—Le Brun, A.R.A.—Ansde, R.A.—Frost, R.A.—Nash, R.A.—Papineau, R.A.—James, A.R.A.—Nasmyth—Linsell, son—Dobson, A.R.A.—Cox, R.A.—Gill, R.A.—F. Hardy—John Faed—Frère—Raipere—Brillouin—Lidderton—George Smith—Duverger, &c.—Admission on presentation of address card.

ROYAL POLYTECHNIC.—Exhibition of and Lecture on the Prussian Needle Gun and other Breech-loading Rifles—Henry Drayton's Musical Entertainments—The Cherubs floating in the Air—The Modern Delphic Oracle—and Shakespeare and his Creations, with Recitals by F. Damer Cape, Esq.—Dugwar's Indian Pictures—Admission to the whole, 1s. Open from 12 till 6, and 7 till 10.

FINE ARTS

FINE-ART GOSSIP.

WE understand that Mr. Richmond, R.A., has undertaken to restore the very interesting portrait of Richard the Second, which formed probably the most ancient well-authenticated likeness at the National Portrait Exhibition, and is the property of the Dean and Chapter of Westminster.

The experiment of admitting the public to the National Portrait Exhibition may be considered a perfect success, sufficient, we trust, to justify a repetition of the gathering next year, by which time the importance and extraordinary interest of these gatherings will be appreciated even more widely than is now the case. In the fortnight preceding the 18th inst., the public was admitted at 3d. per head, and schools of poor children at the rate of thirty children and a teacher for 1s. In the week ending Saturday, the 11th inst., 6,217 persons paid 3d. each, besides 1,199 school-children and their teachers.

While repairing and re-setting the splendid example of *Opus Alexandrinum* that faces the altar at Westminster Abbey, where the reredos by Messrs. Clayton & Bell is about to be placed, the workmen came upon remains of an older building than that now in existence, to wit, part of the original work of Edward the Confessor, whose "old grave" was there situated. These remains comprised two pillars, of very ancient character; also, a leaden coffin, which, either by time or its original moulder, was made to assume the shape of the corpse it had inclosed: this was found on the south side of the altar. On the north side was dis-

covered a stone coffin, which is an object of great interest, and the occasion of many conjectures.

M. A. de Solomé completed last week at Osborne a crayon portrait of the Duke of Edinburgh, which is to be engraved by Mr. W. Holl.

The Buxton Memorial, at the corner of Great George Street, Westminster, has lately received a roof of metal in scales, and a finial in the form of a cross. These additions greatly enhance the beauty of its appearance. The work, which is designed by Mr. Teulon, will soon be complete, and devoted to its use as a drinking-fountain—decidedly the handsomest of the kind in London.

To design a good drinking-fountain would seem easier than to spoil such a thing when made. Both feats have been accomplished at the point of intersection of the Marylebone Road with the Edgware Road, where used to stand a creditable structure of granite and marble; one of the very few works of its sort which was not ridiculously disgraceful to those who put them up, and offensive to those who know better things. Some wiseacre has capped the pretty and simple vase of this fountain with a "lid." He doubtless thought such a utensil ought not to be without a cover, and probably drew his ideas of Art from the china-shops. This "lid" has contours of very coarsely and vulgarly-ordered mouldings, and evidently came from a lathe. The mischief is not irremediable; let the lid be taken off again, and hidden out of sight. There is a good fountain, yet remaining at the junction of Baker Street with Park Road, Regent's Park. We trust this will be spared by the foolish persons who have done so ill in the same neighbourhood. We call upon others, better informed, to protect it from a repetition of the folly in question.

The execution of the statue voted by Congress to the murdered President Lincoln has been intrusted to a lady whose name we hear for the first time, Miss Minnie Rearn.

There has been an exhibition of modern pictures this year at Lille.

The Norman nave of Leominster Priory Church, as restored by Mr. G. G. Scott, has been re-opened for use.

MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

SADLER'S WELLS.—On Monday, a performance took place at this theatre which will leave its mark. The old Grimaldi pantomime of "Mother Goose" was revived, "to celebrate," say the playbills, "the opening of this theatre August 20, 1766, one hundred years ago." It was not quite sixty years ago, however, when the pantomime was first presented at this house, and the theatre itself had been opened three years earlier than stated. The pantomime had been previously acted at Covent Garden, where it produced more than 20,000l. profit to the managers. The author was Thomas Dibdin, who was connected with Sadler's Wells for fourteen years, and yet, after long management and writing and adapting a great number of successful dramas, he died in indigence. We may mention, in relation to the Clerkenwell theatre, that at the period of the production of the pantomime, it had been for two years "the Aquatic Theatre," and profited much by "real water." Previously to that period, the audience used to drink and smoke, and eat cheesecakes, much after the fashion of our modern music-halls; but gradually the Art-element prevailed against these sensuous indulgences, and the building grew into a regular playhouse. What service it has of late done in the cause of the legitimate drama is now matter of history. This has been, indeed, the uniform progress of similar buildings, such as the Grecian, for instance, where Bacchus has in a similar manner made room for dramatic entertainments. Mr. Cave, as the conductor of the theatre, has published a bill with the cast of the pantomime as it was performed at this house in 1810, stating that he has placed the work on the stage now, exactly as it was done then, and employed Mr. Tom Matthews to superintend its production. Considerable curiosity, of course, was excited, on Mon-

day, to witness this reproduction of an old pantomime in the old style; and a large audience assembled. The pantomime was preceded by the drama of "The Police-Spy," which was scarcely listened to, so great was the impatience to live the past over again with Grimaldi! Most of the incidents, cumulative as they were, and reducing the heroine to the deepest distress, were used as the occasion of laughter; nor was the house quieted until the curtain rose upon the farm-scene in "Mother Goose." The tale of the opening is soon told, and as briefly acted. The farmer's daughter is given to the peasant, to the chagrin of the jilted suitor, by the mercenary father, who accepts the golden egg and the goose, and straightway proceeds to cut up the magic bird, but is prevented by the wise and benevolent Mother. The slightest portion of dialogue suffices to tell the story, and then the harlequinade commences, not, however, as a separate and independent piece, but still in connexion with the plot of the opening; Mother Goose appearing at the end, to re-transform the characters, after their trials in the state of pantomime probation. This plan implies a meaning, and almost raises the work to the rank of an allegory. In the comic scenes, also, a specific meaning is observable. Their outline is a severe one, steadily keeping the purpose in view, and not suffering the matter to run into extravagance. Such is the scene in which all the persons are spell-bound, while the Clown paints their unconscious faces; and such the chamber-scene, where the Clown himself, haunted by the ghost of Harlequin, feels supernatural terrors. These are regular situations, carefully set, and requiring good acting. One sees in them that the Clown must be personated by a good histrionic artist, and we no longer wonder that Grimaldi should have gained a high reputation by his performances. The means adopted for effect were much simpler than those now resorted to; but they indicated a more thoughtful and original treatment.

ALEXANDRA.—This house has brought out a new burlesque, under the title of "Cassiope; or, Hunkie Dorum the Monster." The authors are Messrs. H. C. Hazlewood and Edward Chamberlain. The main action of the burlesque is engaged with the story of Perseus and Andromeda, two classical personages impersonated by Miss Eliza Hamilton and Miss Heathcote. *Cassiope*, the dis�racted mother, is given to Mr. J. C. Taylor, whose comic power is great in this class of assumptions. The outline of the fable is well enough preserved, and so disposed as to form a series of scenes which are new and sparkling. But the dialogue is not equally brilliant, nor are the puns and parodies uniformly happy. It was too evident on Saturday that the rehearsals had been incomplete. Mr. Giovannelli, indeed, made an apology for the defects of the performance, and promised that they should be remedied on future occasions.

MUSICAL AND DRAMATIC GOSSIP.

Mr. Mellon has given a Beethoven night, a Weber night and a Spohr night at his *Promenade Concerts*.—Mlle. Cariotta Patti is announced as about to arrive in England, to appear at Covent Garden immediately.

The *Crystal Palace* "improves each shining hour" of popular success, or of calamity, by some opportune performance. Its last fest was a concert for the benefit of those who have suffered by the late German war; the appeal was liberally responded to by German artists. A part of Bach's *Concerto* for four pianos; a March of Schubert's given by eight pianists; a *Concertante*, by Maurer, for four violins; M. Gounod's "Meditation" on Bach's first prelude, in its choral form; a Logierian arrangement of Weber's "Invitation to Waltz," for orchestra and eight pianos; and Luther's Hymn "Eine feste Burg," were among other of the pieces that figured in the bill of this peculiar and interesting concert. Should our present hopes of peace be realized, what an opportunity is there for grand international concerts!

Verily, Music is now put to new uses in old places. The other day the newspapers told of a "choral wedding" celebrated in Westminster

Abbey. In the hymn tune, or "chorale" (as the jargon of the time hath it), "four harps behind a screen" were employed. What will those *Dryasdust* folk who cleave to Gregorian and Ambrosian tones make of such a piece of allurement? And yet why should not brides have harps as well as organs, if sacred instrumental music there is to be? We cannot hold to the unalterable sanctity of any representative form of worship. But "harps behind a screen" in Westminster Abbey, at an aristocratic choral wedding, have an odd sound. It should be added that Mr. Turle, the excellent organist of the Cathedral, had nothing to do with "the celebrity" (as Burney coxcombically described the Handel Festival), having been out of town.—Science seems disposed to call in Music as an adornment to its gatherings. The Meeting of the British Association is to close with a "choral *file*."

Not wishing to write history incorrectly, we must mention that the project of the Welsh touring party, which we lately announced, has not been carried out. The new *Cantata* prepared by Mr. John Thomas for the Chester Eisteddod, bears the title of 'The Bride of the Neath Valley.'

The nonsense written concerning Gluck's operas would fill many a ream. Only last week we read that his 'Iphigenia' is "a curious but rather interesting mummy—the still, motionless *effigies* of a past existence"; and, further, find the master described as "this Teutonic pigmy in harmonic adhesions,"—one "who had about him an unbound stock of moral vulgarity." Later we are assured, "that, with all his petty manoeuvring, he is rapidly passing away from the horizon." Nothing like courage in dealing with facts! The writer of the above chooses to ignore such realities as that Gluck's five operas have never ceased to form part of the repertory of such *first-class* German theatres as those of Berlin, Dresden, Munich, Vienna,—as the recent and coming revivals in Paris, which have occupied so large a share of public attention,—as the awakening of a living interest in England (if only attested by such an honest success as attended the performances given by Mr. Halle in Manchester as concert music) not to be denied, save by Bigotry in its most perverse form.

Signor Verdi's 'Don Carlos' is in course of rehearsal at the Grand Opéra. The singers are to be Madames Saxe and Guymard (in the parts of *Elisabeth* and the *Princess Eboli*), MM. Morère, Faure, Obin, Belval, and David.—The rehearsals of M. Gounod's 'Romeo et Juliette' have commenced at the Théâtre Lyrique, and January next is mentioned as the month in which the opera may be produced; but, seeing that the tenor has still to be found, for January one may read March.—The *Gazette Musicale* states that, on the occasion of the gratuitous performance of 'L'Africaine', given at the Grand Opéra on the Emperor's birthday, boxes, commonly holding only six, were occupied by six-and-thirty persons! We cannot but fancy some mistake of figures here.

The new music school at Copenhagen, founded by a legacy of a jeweller, is to commence its operations during the present year. M. Gade is one of the directors.

Madame Bishop and other artists of an English Opera Company, on the way from San Francisco to Hong-Kong, have narrowly escaped one of the most horrible deaths conceivable, having been at sea during thirteen days and nights in the long boat of the wrecked ship *Libelle*.

The festival of the musical societies of Alsace will this year be held at Belfort, Lower Rhine.

The *Gazette Musicale* announces that Señor Treserra, editor of a musical journal at Barcelona, has been writing a series of intelligent articles on the genius and music of Meyerbeer.—Herr Otto Mühlberg announces yet another catalogue of Beethoven's works.

Madame Lagrua is engaged for the Italian Opera House at Paris.—Mdlle. Orgenj has left the Berlin Opera House, and will sing at Vienna.

Among the operas selected for the coming Vienna season are Boieldieu's 'Chaperon Rouge,' and Herr Wagner's 'Rienzi.'

A new opera, 'Il Posto d'Onore,' by Signor Bouglia, has been given at a minor theatre in Turin, without success.

'Les Don Juans de Village,' a new drama, in *patois*, by Madame George Sand and her son, has been produced at the Théâtre Vaudeville. The story—one of village profligacy—appears to be repulsive; and the play has been found tedious by the public.

MISCELLANEA

John Bunyan.—I thank Mr. Cole for the information he has furnished of what he has of the early copies of John Bunyan's works. Respecting the first and third piece which Mr. Cole has informed us he has, the painstaking inquirer (Mr. Offer) after all the early copies of Bunyan's works could not find either. In fact, he states respecting 'Instructions of the Ignorant,' that the first edition could not be discovered, so we are now wiser than Mr. Offer could make us. Since so many early copies of Bunyan's works were destroyed (which Mr. Offer had taken such great pains to collect) when the fire occurred at the sale of his library, all early copies are now *rarer*. Mr. Offer appears to have collected, of various editions of Bunyan's works, about 500 copies; but he had not more than six or seven that were first editions. Seeing then that first editions of Bunyan's works are now so very rare, it would be well if they could be all publicly known. I have two of the rarest. Mr. Cole has two, if not three. One or two I believe are in the British Museum, and three or four more are in possession of private individuals. If any of your readers would therefore make it known that they have a copy or more, it would be, I think, a source of great pleasure to all the admirers of our great divine.

W. TARBUTT.

Mechanical Impressions of Light on the Eye.—On the 8th of July, 1848, you favoured me by giving insertion to a note 'On the Decomposition of Light by the Eye,' wherein a simple method was given of proving that the impression of light upon the retina remains for a short period, and that it disperses itself gradually, the light decomposing itself into its primitive colours in the order of the spectrum. M. L'Abbé Daborde has recently demonstrated the same thing by an ingenious but more complicated means, submitted to the Paris Academy of Sciences ('Comptes Rendus,' No. 3, 16th of July, 1866, p. 57). To my former communication I would beg to add the following: Falling asleep whilst reading in a bright light, I have frequently observed, on awaking, the impression of the print remaining in the eye so distinctly that for two or three seconds the letters have been distinguishable. When the light has been of inferior strength, the impression has been that of obscure lines, as those of a book appear to a person who cannot read without spectacles. The above would seem to include a very important operation of nature, namely, the communication between the immaterial, or, perhaps, rather, the imponderable, with the material. On one side is light in its active operations; on the other a mechanical effect produced by the impinging of light on the retina and communicated through the optic nerve to the brain. The method of the operation appears to be analogous to, if not the same as that of light in photography, which acts upon the chemical substances employed, disturbing their electric equilibrium. This disturbance of the optic nerve, which produces the sense of vision, finds a parallel in the act of thinking, which has been shown to be connected with motion in the fibres of the brain.

JOHN JOS. LAKE.

To CORRESPONDENTS.—E. R. P.—E. M. C.—C. C.—R. C.—D.—T.—G. J.—Z. (Manchester)—K.—H.—N. O.—received.

* * Since the controversy between Mr. Ottley and Mr. Bohn was first closed, each gentleman has had our columns opened to him once, at his own request, and has made a certain statement. Mr. Ottley now complains, that in Mr. Bohn's last letter there are statements "disparaging to my literary répute and to my character as a gentleman." With this, so far as we are concerned, the controversy must terminate, or "more last words" would go on without end. For these our advertising columns are still available.

Erratum.—P. 216, col. 1, line 40, for "could" read *could not*.

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